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Illustration on front cover.

Sportswomen from Kazakhstan marching through the Red Square during the Physical Culture Parade.

THE ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL

The Quarterly Organ of

THE SOCIETY FOR CULTURAL RELATIONS

Between the Peoples of the British Commonwealth of Nations
and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

The Society is a non-political organisation, founded in 1924, to collect and diffuse information in both countries on developments in science, education, philosophy, art, literature, and social and economic life. It organises lectures, concerts, film shows, exhibitions, etc., and has the largest collection in Britain of information on cultural aspects of the U.S.S.R. Its library contains volumes in English and Russian, and members are entitled to take out books on loan, as well as to obtain reduced admission to many of the Society's functions and a reduced subscription to *The Anglo-Soviet Journal*. The minimum subscription is 10s. 6d. per annum London and Home Counties, and 5s. in the provinces. There are branches of the Society in several provincial centres.

Edited by
G. M. VEVERS
F.R.C.S.

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EDITORIAL

THE ANGLO-SOVIET TREATY OF ALLIANCE.

FOUR years ago on May 26th 1942 there was signed between Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. a twenty-one-year Treaty of Alliance. A momentous event in the history of the two countries and of the world! Let us cast our minds back a moment to the world situation one year before that.

The Nazis had by then the whole of Europe and considerable portions of Africa in subjection. Austria and Czechoslovakia had been thrown to Hitler by the appeasers. Poland, Norway, Holland, Belgium, France had all been overrun in a military sweep that nothing seemed able to withstand. As the resistance in each country was overcome by the enemy so the myth of Nazi invincibility grew and Europe lay paralysed, with the future dark and hopeless.

This seemingly invincible army decided on June 22nd, 1941, to finish the U.S.S.R. before turning on Britain. It set forth, destroying, pillaging, raping and murdering, confident of an easy victory, a confidence which was shared by some of the Allies too. And events in the first three months of the Nazi onslaught gave a semblance of support to this view. But what in fact happened in those six months of retreat? For the first time in their murderous swagger across Europe the Nazis met a many-millions united people for whom love of country, of the Soviet country, was above all other considerations. They met a people whom this love, combined with amazing courage and daring, had stimulated to resourcefulness, ingenuity, skill and endurance of the highest order.

The defeat of the Germans at the approaches to Moscow is rightly regarded as the turning point in the war for mankind's freedom. But it may be claimed that the defeat of the Germans began with the vast destruction of men and material inflicted on the Nazi forces by the retreating Red army, began with the evidence offered to a world that had lost hope, that the battle for human rights could be won by the united effort and will of the common peoples.

This realisation of the common purpose of Great Britain and the U.S.S.R., and the common will to victory, the realisation that unity of the Allies was an essential prerequisite to final victory, gave birth to the 'Twenty-one-years' Anglo-Soviet Treaty of Alliance.

Rarely did a treaty between countries give so much satisfaction to their peoples as did this Anglo-Soviet Treaty.

We in Britain had come to understand that the Soviet peoples were sincere and genuine in their ideals for world peace and for a better world. While we had our own ideas about ways and means, we wholeheartedly supported the freedom which under the Soviets became the inalienable right of all nationalities, great or small, advanced or primitive. We admired that country's staggering achievements in raising the standard of living for all its people. And we were filled not only with admiration but with a deep gratitude for the Red Army and the workers in the rear for their magnificent stand against the common enemy which enabled Britain and the U.S.A. to make their final assault on Nazism.

These things have not changed today. The common purpose to ensure world peace, to remove the fear of want, and to give prosperity and security to the peoples that have suffered so long and so deeply is unchanged, is as vital as ever. This has been strengthened by common suffering and common sacrifice in the cause of freedom.

Today the world is faced with problems which only unity among the great allies and particularly British-Soviet unity, can solve. Common action arising out of this unity will enrich both countries. The peoples of the two countries are akin in their high regard for things of the spirit, in their appreciation that art is as important for

the people as labour saving devices, in their readiness to help the needy and the suffering.

Through an expanding mutual exchange of information, culture and trade we shall gain force and strength for our twofold task, which is to help and encourage all those who understand the vital importance of a firm and lasting British-Soviet friendship and to defeat the enemies of this friendship. Powerful as this sinister group of enemies is, it is not as powerful as the friends of the Soviet Union united and firm in their resolve to unmask the pretensions, lies and calumnies, with which these enemies poison the atmosphere, doing their best to prevent the peaceful democratic solution of the post-war world problems.

Our strength grows with the fight against these calumniators. We are convinced of success because British-Soviet friendship is in the interests of the British people. We are convinced of success because British-Soviet friendship is based on truth, understanding and the interests of mankind.

PEACE DEVELOPMENT.

The Soviet Union is caught up in a mighty wave of peace-time development. The Press, the radio, journals and books are absorbed in the topic of reconstruction and development. At their job, in their club, in the home, talk is of the Five-Year Plan, of new enterprises, new power stations, new mines and new oil wells, of new records of work and new inventions. Agreements and undertakings to fulfil and over-fulfil plans, socialist emulation between factories and shops, between work brigades on the farms, are eagerly read and eagerly followed. The Reconstruction Loan floated to enable the plans to be realised was over-subscribed in ten days.

The people know that the full realisation of these plans will for a time continue to make heavy demands on them, that the 1940 standard of living cannot be reached at one jump without a continued sacrifice of amenities. But everywhere they see evidence of their Government's good faith and the reward of their work. Consumer goods are appearing in the shops in rapidly increasing quantities at prices drastically reduced. Long-term planning has raised the standard of feeding for the masses and will enable food rationing to be abolished by the Autumn. Because of the terrific destruction in men and material wealth suffered by the Soviet Union in the common war against Nazi German aggression the standard for the masses is still lower than that for the comfortable classes in Britain and particularly in the U.S.A. However, the drastic reduction in prices of food commodities outside the rations has considerably evened out the standard of feeding. The extras which could be earned by the few are increasing so that they can now be earned by the many.

Great as are the developments in the established industries and industrial centres, it is far greater in those republics which 25 years ago were devoid of any modern industry. These formerly backward peoples are with the help of Great Russia on the way to making their lands very powerful economically, and as a natural consequence in the Soviet Union, great culturally. The peoples are themselves learning how to become skilled engineers, scientists and agricultural specialists in the schools and universities and scientific institutes of their own lands. The rate of economic development as envisaged by the next Five-Year Plan however, is so rapid and so vast in scope that their own facilities for training are temporarily inadequate. Ever ready to help, Great Russia has invited groups of young workers, Uzbeks, Kasakhs, Tajiks, Kirghiz, to train in the schools and workshops of her most advanced industrial cities. Here the experience and skill of men and women will be passed on to them. They will return to their native lands where they will help the existing skilled cadres to ensure the fulfilment of their country's plans. The swift and powerful development of these formerly undeveloped lands will make a weighty contribution to strengthening the Soviet Union, to making it a mighty bastion against those dark forces that if left to their own would plunge the world once more into chaos.

LABOUR INCENTIVES IN THE SOVIET UNION

By JOHN PLATTS-MILLS, M.P.
(Leader of Youth Delegation to U.S.S.R.)

THE fourth Five Year Plan is not only announced, but is already being carried into effect. It sets before the country a vast programme of work to be done. It calls for great increases in every phase of capital production, a demand that is consistent with all that is to be seen (in the order of priorities) in the Soviet Union today. Everywhere new factories are going up and old ones are being restored. While the plan for an increase in coal, steel and oil production is great, it is obvious that the present proposals are only a stage in the programme of expansion that the Soviet Government have in mind. In his eve of election speech at the Bolshoi Theatre on 10th February, 1946, Generalissimo Stalin set targets for the more distant future which exceed the present totals of coal and steel production for the whole world. The world has sufficient experience now of the Soviet Union for this plan, grandiose as it is, to be taken with the utmost seriousness. The same speech informed us for the first time that war-time production of tanks and aeroplanes exceeded that of America itself.

Who is to fulfil these demands? It is to be the mass of the Soviet people, and it is impossible to understand the magnitude of the tasks set before them without regard to their background and recent history. It is difficult to find even in the western part of the Soviet Union and even in the great cities any people who are city folk in the English sense. There are no Cockneys. The percentage of the population that has inherited technical skill, a knowledge of machines handed on from father to son, is very small. Nearly every Soviet citizen comes within the last generation or two from the country. Eighty years ago, most of the country people were still serfs. The basis of the country's life is a peasant community which twenty-five years ago was desperately backward. Peasant, as our Youth Delegation learned, is not merely a foreign word for a country worker. It describes a backward person with a primitive technique whose outlook comprehends little beyond the village itself. Eighty years ago, the fathers of the present Soviet people were in many cases in the same position as the Indian village people of today. In the country areas, to a great extent, the Soviet people are still a peasant people, although armed with education, tractors and advanced agricultural technology. This peasant background influences every phase of the work of the country and of Government both at home and abroad.

The Soviet people, too, are now experiencing real hardships. Their housing position is worse than before the first World War. They lost more houses in the three years of occupation than were built between the two wars. They now put up with a standard of clothing which in shabbiness and monotony is surprising to us in the West. It is not that the people were ragged or cold, but that all people in all walks of life had the barest minimum. A street full of mill girls in the Midlands are smartly dressed compared with the crowd in the Bond Street of Moscow. in January. Transport was slow and working under desperate pressure. People rode on the buffers between the carriages and on the roofs just as they do in occupied Germany today. The trams went off with people clinging to every ledge. So bad was transport that on trains and trams all normal standards of conduct were undermined. You could call a person a fool (dourak) on the tram and get away with it, but to do so in public and not in a vehicle amounts to "insulting words and behaviour." The reader should bear in mind that this was the picture six months ago. Since then there have been vast improvements.

Against this background and with these present hardships what is it that makes these people work with such vigour? What is the inducement? If it must be reduced to a slogan then we can say the Soviet people work because they have confidence both in what is happening today and in the future. If we were to judge from our local dailies, and indeed even from the progressive weeklies, we should come to the conclusion that Soviet people work because they are forced to; because of fear and presumably they are so abnormal that they like it! But the cleverest anti-Soviet hacks are placed in difficulties when they meet the Russian people at work, for there is no mistaking their enthusiasm for the regime. The truth is that even in the technical sense there is no forcing today, and the complete abolition of the direction of labour in industry is sufficient evidence that freedom and not compulsion is the driving force. This fact needs repeating quietly to oneself till it sinks in. People are won to the jobs by the actual inducements offered by the jobs themselves; by that and by propaganda and by teaching in the schools and in training establishments.

Let us begin with the wage packet. The Soviet people are little concerned with equality in rewards. Manual work is on a piece rate with bonuses, which as a rule increase substantially with the increased

production, or output above the normal. It is accepted by all that those who have money have worked for it, and also that it is honestly earned. Soviet workers are not resentful of inequalities of pay nor do their Unions have to fight employers for a more equitable share in the product of their labour. There is no employing class whose interests are in conflict with those of the workers. Their share of the results of their labour increases with increasing output. The ultimate goal is more leisure as well as more goods for all, and the Soviet worker knows and believes this. This is in striking contrast to our general attitude in the West. We are highly conscious of inequalities, and we regard them usually as due to unequal opportunities rather than unequal merits. When we see a really rich car, we are inclined, even the least envious of us, to assume that the money was ill-gotten. Some of our recent Trade Union visitors to the Soviet Union complained that the directors of plants rode in motor cars while the workers rode in street cars. There are not enough cars as yet for both workers and directors. To most people it would seem just that in such a situation cars should be at the service of those with the greatest responsibility, which is what happens in the Soviet Union, though one should add that cars are sometimes given as awards to really good workers. Favours—rewards is the better word—are shown to those who contribute most to the country's present and future prosperity, and the Soviet worker accepts it as right and proper, in the same way as he accepts it as right and proper that foreign visitors should be sent to the front of a queue. It is interesting to find that the British authorities in the Ruhr have been suggesting that they may have to "bribe" the miners in the Ruhr with a substantially increased ration as though it were not their due, or as though giving more food to the miner than to the typist was somehow unrighteous. We found that people treated a big limousine with respect because it signified service to the community and not private gain.

The miners are the best paid workers. In the Don Basin, their wages range from 3,000 roubles on the surface to 6,000 roubles below. An average surface worker gets, at 3,000 roubles, as much as the Director—that is principal executive officer—of the Red Front Chocolate Factory in Moscow. A qualified primary school head gets 600 rubles, while a secondary school head gets 1,200 roubles. There are all kinds of additional payment for extra duties, degrees, and state honours. The senior workers in the Pioneer Palaces and Houses, that is the out-of-school club and hobby centres for young people, get slightly more than secondary school teachers, and have higher qualifications. In some factories we found leading Stakhanovites getting more than the director. At the other end

of the scale we found a part-time cleaner in the chocolate factory adding to her old age pension of 150 roubles a month by earning another in the factory. She lived in the same block of flats as the director, who earned 3,000 roubles. She paid 15 roubles a month for rent, while he paid 300 roubles. She had one room less and was one floor higher. Otherwise there was nothing in it. The important thing on the question of inducement is to see the contrast between the different rates. It is interesting, however, to get some idea of what the money will buy.

Here we come upon the second main type of inducement, namely ration scales. This was a war-time introduction and it still persists. There are many different scales and these are well known and freely published in the shops. There is no attempt to conceal from one group the rations being given to another. For example, the workers in the Moscow Metro will all be rationed with the same set of shops according to their district, but to each shop there will go people on different ration scales. The official notices from the Ministry of Food posted in the shops show the following: four grades of manual workers, two grades of office workers, two grades of children (under and over five), two grades of scientific workers, and dependants' scale and five grades for the extras for those who do not take a hot mid-day dinner at a canteen. Some of the grades, of course, are the same, as for example the senior scientific workers and heaviest manual workers, and in some there are only very slight differences. The miners in the Don Basin adopted a very normal attitude for Russia. "How can you work below on this miserable ration; only six eggs a week." It was no satisfaction to him to have it pointed out that *babushka* (granny) got two eggs a week only. What were the prices of these ration? I can only give those prevailing in February, and they are now out of date because since then many of them have come down by as much as one half. The finest black bread was one rouble for a 2½ lb. loaf; white bread, 1½ to 2 roubles; eggs, 60 kopecks each; condensed milk, 3.7 roubles a tin; cheese, 3 roubles a kilo; flour, 2.4 roubles a kilo; beans, 3.7 roubles; matches, 20 roubles for six boxes; tea, 20 roubles a kilo; soap, 4 roubles for an average toilet piece. All those are ration prices and they are standard throughout the country.

In addition to the ration shops, there are the commercial shops in which anyone can buy. Our Youth Delegation, their minds well coloured by stories in London and Berlin, expected to find nothing but generals and ballerinas in the commercial shops. We found them more crowded than the Spring sales or Woolworth's on market day. It is not that there are so many generals and ballerinas, but that there is plenty of money going about in Russia. The commercial shops are



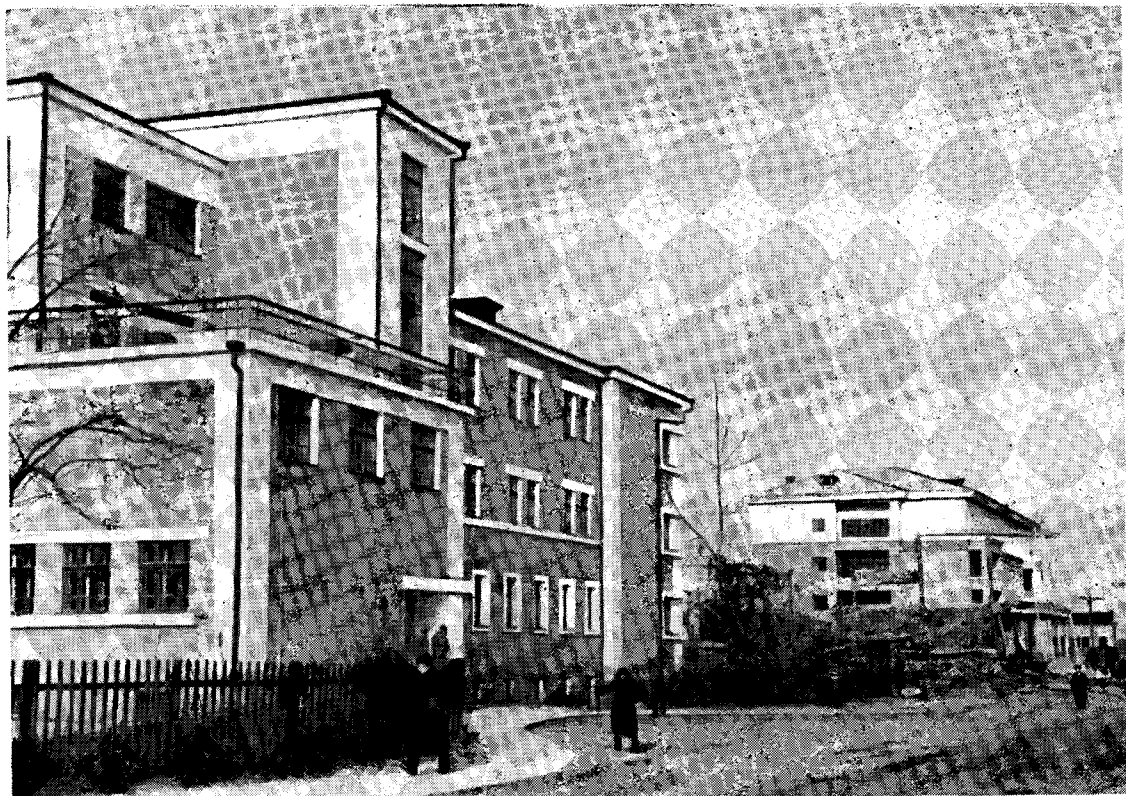
MIKHAIL IVANOVICH KALININ.

DIED JUNE 3RD, 1946.

Death has removed one of the well-loved leaders of the Soviet Union. Born in 1875, the son of peasants, Kalinin began his life in Petersburg as a factory worker at the age of 18. Two years later he joined the revolutionary movement and for fifty years he laboured unceasingly in the cause of the workers. Neither persecution nor exile were allowed to interfere.

In the latter years he saw the fruits of the Bolshevik Party's activities to which he had contributed so much. His simple wisdom and his deep understanding of people won him the love and respect of the multitude.

As President first of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R., and then, in 1938, of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., he helped to guide the country through many difficulties. His death after a grave and protracted illness will be mourned by the whole people.



New houses in the industrial settlement of the Stalingrad tractor works.

INCENTIVES TO LABOUR.

In the library of a work's rest home.



LABOUR INCENTIVES IN THE SOVIET UNION

crowded with people from every sort of job, and plenty of them in rough clothing with felt boots, which showed trace not only of snow but of the farmyard as well. These shops have two distinct purposes. First, to give a real advantage to those who earn extra money. Second, to collect some portion of the large quantities of money paid out in the form of wages. This money goes to the State and not to individuals as private profit, and is returned to the worker in social service and further prosperity. The shops provide a great range of goods at a high price. They are a war-time creation and with the rapid fall in prices now going on, they are doomed to extinction. The bread ration is so great that few people take up the whole of it. Extra bread, however, was as much as 15 roubles a kilo, while in war-time it had even been as high as 100 roubles a kilo; eggs, 10 roubles each; condensed milk, 35 roubles a tin; cheese, 330 roubles a kilo. Those are typical of the goods which can also be obtained on the ration but which, off the ration, are about ten times the price. In addition, coffee was 140 roubles a kilo, a tiny tin of crab 110 roubles, chicken 200 roubles a kilo, a diminutive game bird, something like a snipe, 35 roubles each, a live fish out of a tank 130 roubles a kilo, pork 270 roubles a kilo. The difficulty in converting this to an English value is shown by the fact that this pork at the official rate of exchange, 20 roubles to £1 sterling, means £13 for 2.2 lbs. of pork; at the diplomatic rate of exchange it is £7; at the exchange our British Ambassador gets it is £3 10s.; while at the sort of figure which, taken by and large, does justice to the respective prices over a wide field, i.e., 150 roubles to £1, it is something under 20s. for a pound of pork off the ration.

With this in mind, let us turn back to the price of the goods on the ration. The best bread is under one penny a pound, eggs are 8d., cheese under 2s. a pound, and matches 5d. a box. The bulk of consumer goods can be purchased at a price easily afforded by the average citizen. We raised the question at once: if people are pressing into the shops to buy extra food, it shows that the ration is not enough. Further, if there is spare food to be sold at high prices, why should not this be added to the ration and divided equally? The answer was that the object of the rationing system was not to give a mechanical equality between all types of workers, but, in the first place, to direct the food where it was most needed, hence the ration scales, and secondly, to give some positive and obvious advantage to those who, by working better or doing more responsible jobs, are earning bigger money. We remember how at home in Britain the hardest workers in the engineering industry on whom we depended for our tanks and planes and guns earned big money, which was of

little use to them. There was nothing to buy and the Government took much of it in income tax. Far from creating an inducement to hard work and long overtime, it had the opposite effect. Income tax in the Soviet Union is, of course, very small. It accounts for 5 per cent. of the total budget, as compared with 40 per cent. in Britain.

In addition to the wages and the ration, there is a further direct advantage given to special workers in the percentage reduction on all Government prices except the rationed goods. The great majority of town workers have a *limita knizhka*, a "limit booklet," marked with a percentage from 15 to 50, which entitles them to buy in the commercial shops and other non-ration shops at the stated percentage below the fixed price. The same booklets are valid in hotels and cafés. The Ministry of Food determine the percentages that will be given to different workers, but those with the heaviest and most responsible jobs get the biggest reduction percentage. A key man at 1,500/2,000 roubles a month in the engineering industry will have a card for 25 per cent, the average coal-face worker will have a 50 per cent. cut, the most junior school teacher or literary worker 15 per cent. or 20 per cent.

The right to rest is guaranteed to the workers in every industry. There is a universal eight-hour day and a minimum of two weeks' holidays with pay. In most industries, such as mining, railways, forestry and engineering, it is now four weeks.

It would be wrong to ignore a much wider range of inducements operative throughout the Soviet Union. Basing themselves on their experience before the war and on the programme of today, the Soviet people know that within a comparatively short time they will be in the midst of plenty. They are already seeking to divert their interests into those fields where desire can never be sated, into the field of expanding education and cultural development. Take the simplest example. Our richest coal area is south Yorkshire, the Don Valley, where in all the great towns there is not a single opera house. The Don Basin is a comparable area, but not so great a producer and still suffering from the devastation of the German revenge—destruction in their retreat. In 1920 there were no opera houses there. In 1940 there were eleven. In 1943 all were destroyed, but in 1946 all are rebuilt. Each has its own orchestra and opera company and ballet. Each is packed with miners and their families every night. In each, the orchestra and company are recruited in great part from miners and miners' children. The profits of all the industries go to the State, but on the way through a great part of them stays with the Local Authorities. So it is that in the rich areas the advantages given through local government are the greatest. For ex-

ample, in the Don Basin we found the only free Technical School in the Soviet Union, the Stalino Mining and Technical Institute. In all other universities and institutes a year's course costs 400 roubles (against this must be set the fact that by good work every student can receive a stipend, the minimum of which is 150 roubles a month): 3,200 young engineers in mining, chemistry and metallurgy attend at Stalino without payment but still getting their stipend. Further, the workers in the more difficult industries have the advantage and the encouragement of knowing that some of the big profits that come from the luxury trades are available to further the development in their industries. Both the budget and the State plan show how the profits from the perfumery, tobacco and wine trades, which as with us are many hundreds per cent., are made available for the general development of the country. It is impossible to ignore also what the workers see going on around them in the way of advantages for their own children. The schools take priority immediately after factories and capital production generally. In Stalingrad we saw the whole school building programme complete, fifty-six fine modern permanent buildings, up and working, before a single permanent dwelling house had been erected. Everywhere through the schools and through the Pioneer Houses, the best opportunities possible have been given to young people to develop their natural talents.

It must not be thought because of all these material inducements industry is run like a debating society. Discipline in industry plays a great rôle. There is discipline in everything, even in the swimming bath and the health sanatoria at Sochi. For example, in winter there are 10,000 workers suffering from rheumatism, in fifty different sanatoria at Sochi taking the famous sulphur water cure. Any worker who commits a serious breach of rules, e.g., being up after ten at night, will be warned on the first occasion, and sent home on the second, even though his cure may have only just begun. We found voluntary workers in a hospital under the discipline of severe public disapproval when they failed to carry out their duties satisfactorily. The wall newspapers had no mercy on the visitors who promised to come and read regularly and who only came once a week. In the factories, this principle is carried much further. The wall newspaper appears in every shop, in every pit-head establishment, in every library or museum, and contains vigorous comment

on workers or managers alike who have not fulfilled their obligations. In addition there are reprimands and warnings, and there is prosecution for persistent absentees or labourers without good cause. We found that these two—absenteeism and lateness—although well recognised features in industry, were substantially less than what we are accustomed to in Britain. This, again, is achieved by skilful propaganda. In the months of our visit, for example, there had been a widespread and effective drive against absenteeism in honour of the coming election. In mining, it had been reduced to a negligible figure. It is quite apparent to anyone that there is a powerful public opinion that assists in maintaining industrial morale and with which is associated the whole movement of emulation in industry. The famous Stakhanov having graduated from simple pitman to national hero, and national hero to mine director, and mine director to Union official, is now leading the whole movement of emulation. A movement that has in it all the excitement of the chase, of sport and adventure, as well as the more serious effect of raising the worker to higher levels.

All that has gone before deals with the inducements for the industrial worker. I have not dealt with 60 per cent. of the people who are rural workers. The practical inducements in their case are different in character and we may consider these on another occasion.

These many and varied inducements operate in different degrees in different fields of industry. The background for all these inducements, that which makes these methods successful, is the high sense of community consciousness and responsibility that has been nurtured and encouraged by the Soviets and has grown strong because the people have never been let down by their Government. They have been shown a vision of the great stature to which man can attain and though the road is hard, and sometimes painful, and some fall by the way, they are determined to march forward. This is a real factor of immense importance. This faith in themselves, and feeling of high responsibility to the community, is to be met everywhere in vast plant or factory, rail depôt, mine and field, school and university. Visitors are almost immediately made aware of the workers' pride in his job, in his factory and in the whole productive effort.

This is the real secret behind Soviet production.

WOMEN IN THE SOVIET UNION

By JOAN E. THOMAS

I HAVE recently returned from the Soviet Union, where I spent nearly two months as a member of the British Youth Delegation. During that time we travelled a great deal, visited as well as Moscow, the beautiful city of Leningrad in the north. We went south to the Ukraine and stayed in the damaged capital, Kiev, and in the mining centre of Stalino. We spent several days at the lovely semi-tropical health resort of Sochi on the shores of the Black Sea, and we saw what remains of the famous city of Stalingrad. Everywhere that we went, we talked to people, mostly young people like ourselves, and from them we did our best to get a balanced view of their way of life, which differs in many ways from our own.

Language, of course, was a great difficulty. Unfortunately, not one of us could say much more than "please" and "thank you" in Russian when we first arrived in the country, and though we picked up quite a number of words, and now and again prided ourselves on understanding a whole sentence, we could not claim to be exactly fluent when the time came to leave. But we always had interpreters with us, who worked from morning till night, translating question and answer for us. And not only did they do that in the factories and farms, in the schools and universities that we visited, but they made conversation possible with our next-door neighbour at table, so that we could get the most out of our visit. They were helped a little in their task by the amazingly large numbers of Russians that we met who spoke English or German. In all the schools one foreign language is compulsory. Before the war I understand that German was predominant. It seems now that English is taking its place. One girl that we met, who like many others, had never spoken to an English person before, shy at first, became really excited when she found that we understood her. Another girl I talked to had studied English for three years at the Moscow Institute. To my question why she had chosen that particular subject, she replied, "The English are our friends. I wish to know the language of my friends." That spirit of friendship was evident all the time. We were trying to understand our very real differences and to co-operate despite them, and I hope that we may have succeeded a little in our limited spheres. With more such direct contact between our two countries, much misunderstanding would be avoided.

Friendship and understanding was, then, our first aim as a delegation. Our second was, in general, to examine every aspect

of the life of young people in the Soviet Union. With this in view we went to kindergartens and children's hospitals, to schools, pioneer houses, and universities, to factories and to farms. This was of great interest to us all, but most of us had also our own special interest which we had some opportunity of following up.

As a member of the W.A.A.F., I was particularly anxious to find out what part the women had played in the war, to learn about their system of demobilisation, and to see what sort of jobs they are tackling now. The first thing that I discovered was that there was nothing really comparable to our Women's Auxiliary Services. Russian women volunteered to fight in almost every branch of the three Services, and when they did so it was on an equal footing with the men. There were women pilots and crews who flew operationally with the Red Air Force. There were women who sailed in the merchant ships on war service, and who held any post not excluding that of captain of the vessel. And there were women snipers, guerillas, anti-aircraft gunners, doctors, nurses and many others, who joined the Army and went into the front line of the fighting. They came under the same administration as the men, they trained with them, and they received the same pay.

I talked to a large number of girls who had been in the Services, and always it was the same story of front-line activity, of guerilla fighting, or of secret service work behind the enemy lines. For instance, there was Nina, a short, smiling girl of about twenty-three, who started in the Army as a nurse, then volunteered as a sniper when her own home, Stalingrad, was threatened. She lost her right hand when fighting with the infantry in the defence of the city. Then there was Annia, whom I met in Moscow on Election Day. She had been a sergeant in the Secret Service Branch, and had worked in the front line and in the enemy's rear, collecting information. Both these girls wore the "Order of the Red Star." Then, at the theatre one night, we met Nadezhda, a most attractive girl, who is now a medical student. She had won the highest award, that of "Hero of the Soviet Union," for her guerilla activities. These girls, and many others to whom I spoke, illustrated the fundamental difference between the status of Russian women, and English women. In the U.S.S.R. equality of the sexes is very much more marked than in England. Though many of our Service women did men's jobs during the war, they were limited to the work behind the lines, and their function was to release

men for the actual fighting. Perhaps had we been invaded, some of our women would have joined in active defence, but I feel that the men would have done all in their power to prevent it. In the Soviet Union, equality is so natural, that there appeared to me to be no such feeling.

I have spoken of the Russian women in the Services, where equality was an outstanding feature. Behind them there were those women who, because of their energy and their adaptability, made it possible for the Government to call a very great majority of the men into the Forces, leaving the work in industry and on the land almost entirely to women—to women who were prepared and capable of shouldering responsibility such as even they had never had before. The skill and universality of the Russian women is equal to that of the men, and they are not restricted at all in their use of their talents at the present time by any remnant of tradition.

These, then, were the women who stood with their men in time of war. The next interesting point was demobilisation. As soon as release from the Services began, all the women were free to return to their interrupted training, to resume their pre-war job, or to help with the gigantic task of reconstruction. There are very few uniforms among the women now, and the majority of the ones that I did see had been stripped of their badges of rank and were being worn as civilian suits. The ex-Service girls were in all sorts of jobs. Many have gone back to the universities and technical institutes which they left when they joined up. Some, because of disablement, have started new courses of training. There are girls who have returned to their jobs in the factories, and others who are back on the farms. And there are a large number who have volunteered for work in the badly damaged areas, and are forming labour brigades to clear the debris and to start the rebuilding. We talked to a girl in Stalingrad, for instance, who was among the first to come to the city as a bricklayer. Reconstruction is the main task at the moment, and not only do the full-time workers do their share, but many other people, such as students, give up part of their leisure time to work on clearance in the damaged towns.

Careers are natural to the girls and women of the Soviet Union, and early marriage does not stop them working. They do seem to marry younger than we do. We met men in the late twenties who had two and three children, and eighteen is a fairly common age for girls in rural districts to marry. But because, as married, she now has housework to do, she does not usually stop her studies or her job. I asked one of our Russian friends who was a poetess, how she fitted in her work when she had also to look after three children, her husband and her mother. She told me that she rose very

early each day, and that with some help from her mother she managed to keep the house clean, look after the children, buy the rations and cook for the family, and that if she did not go to bed till the early hours of the morning, she could manage this and do her work as well. She was not daunted by the enormous task. That was her routine.

When a mother goes out to work, she leaves her child in very capable hands, at a crèche attached to her factory or office building. These crèches are supplied by the employing organisation and are staffed with trained nursery teachers. There are nursery schools and kindergartens for the children, when they get older—three to three-and-a-half years—and at school age there are Pioneer Houses and Palaces, and children's reading rooms in libraries, where they can spend their leisure time under affectionate expert supervision until their parents return from work.

Despite this, "home," I think, means a great deal to these people, and certainly every care is taken of the young people. But housing is at the moment sadly inadequate, and conditions are particularly bad in the recently occupied areas. The people are, however, content to wait for better living conditions until the economy of the country has been restored, until the first priorities—industry and education—have been dealt with. Hence, in Stalingrad we saw thousands of people sheltering in cellars, in little shacks among the ruins, and in fox-holes, while factories and schools were already functioning. But they are not fighting only to exist, as the Germans did in Berlin. They emerge from their dug-outs to work in the factories, which they themselves have rebuilt in the last three years, and their children go to new schools, fifty-six of which have been erected since the German retreat. One day they know that they will get better living conditions, too.

Because of the inadequate housing conditions, we did not visit many private houses. There was possibly another reason why we were not asked to people's homes, as visitors to this country would be. The Russians have a great tradition of hospitality. Nothing but the best may be set before a guest. Because of strict rationing, they would have found it impossible to entertain us as they thought fit, and therefore we nearly always fed at our hotel. I, personally, wish that this tradition could have been waived for once. In my view, it is difficult to get to know people really well without knowing their background.

But occasionally we managed a personal, intimate, meeting. One day we visited a little village about 30 kilometres outside Kiev. It was a collective farm village, and while we were there three of us asked to see the church. The priest was not available at that moment, so we were taken to his cottage to wait for him.

It was built on the same plan as many others round about, and was reinforced like them, against the cold, with reeds lashed on to the outside walls. Inside, it was beautifully warm, heated with a fire in the thick dividing wall. There were just two rooms, quite simply but adequately furnished. The cooking was done in a deep oven, built into the wall, under which wood was burnt, and the whole place was spotlessly clean, painted bluish-white, with a hand-done frieze round the top, and the inner room decorated with a few photographs. Later in the day we were invited to dinner by the villagers in one of the bigger cottages. This again was beautifully warm and clean. In the towns many people live in flats. Each family would probably have one, two or even three rooms, depending partially on the availability of accommodation, and the amount of damage done during the war in the particular town.

I have already said how the Russian women fought on an equal footing with the men during the war, and that they nearly all seem to have careers even after they are married. No profession is closed to them. As yet, women have not attained to the very highest positions in the Government, but in the 1937 elections in which they took part on an equality with the men, 187 out of the 1,120 deputies elected were women. In the Supreme Soviets of National and Autonomous Republics, the percentage of women representatives is higher, being about 25, while in the local soviets it is nearly 50.

In higher education before the Revolution, the percentage of women was very small. In 1940 it was 43 per cent. The girls enter the universities and technical schools through the same qualifying examinations as the boys, and there are many women with the additional qualifications of Doctor and Professor. A large proportion of the Medical Branch is composed of women, as many as 62 per cent. I met one who held the high position of surgeon-inspector for the Red Army, and her rank was lieutenant-colonel. She is now a Professor and lectures in the Medical Faculty of the Military Academy, and is remaining with the Army. On two occasions another member of the Delegation and I went to a clinic in Moscow. We had lost our voices, so we were taken to the ear, nose and throat specialist. Each time it was a woman doctor we saw.

Many women enter the legal profession. Millions are employed in industry, and many hold high posts there, too. There were women in the factories we visited, doing both the highly skilled jobs and the heavy work. There were even women down a mine which we inspected in Stalino. They were not working on the coal face, but controlling machine switches and doing other light work. This last was a war-time measure, but has not so far been done away with. On the farms, too, the women take their share of the

work, and during the war they did far more than their share. The farm that we visited near Kiev was getting back on to its peace-time basis. There were 130 women labourers out of the total of 290 workers. I believe that this figure is somewhere about the average.

Now, what of the women individually, their clothes and their looks? Their clothes, on the whole, are not what we should call smart. The most important thing is to keep warm, and I think nearly everyone manages this, but their thick padded coats were often old and patched. This again is a question of priorities in industry. There are more important things than clothes which must be manufactured first, so they are waiting, and are not ashamed or self-conscious. They know that when the more important tasks are completed the lesser needs will be dealt with. But the standard of clothing varied. For instance, we saw many more girls attractively dressed when we visited the Opera House in Leningrad than at the Bolshoi Theatre in Moscow. In the Ukraine, girls seemed to be better clothed, and we saw more make-up there than elsewhere. Make-up does not seem to be used so universally as it is in England, but I must remind my readers that we were there during two of the winter months. What I have said may apply only to that season of the year when the main thing is to keep warm. I have heard that when the summer comes, the women are very colourfully dressed in pretty cotton frocks.

Certainly, before the New Year celebrations there seemed to be a constant stream of people at the hairdressers and in the manicure department of the Moskva Hotel where we stayed. Women were smartening themselves up for the occasion. The hairdressing saloon was a sort of social meeting place. There were no separate cubicles. Many people were sitting round the one large room, having their hair permanently waved, washed or set, and the conversation was general. I wished that I had been able to understand Russian so that I could have joined in the holiday spirit. The people of the Soviet Union do work hard, and they lack at the moment some of what we should call the essential amenities of life, but they know how to enjoy themselves. On New Year's Eve many people were at the fair in one of the main squares, they thronged the flood-lit streets, while the street radio played cheerfully. There were parties everywhere, and especially for the young people. Wherever we went on our travels, the theatres were full of men and women enjoying the wonderful opera and ballet. At many of the dinners and banquets given for us, there was singing and dancing. And on one occasion in the Ukraine, some of the girls from the village choir joined our dinner, dressed in their lovely peasant costumes. We could not talk to each other without interpreters, but we could sing together and dance. We

soon learnt many of the Russian songs, and they learnt some of ours. That was a language that we could all understand, and it was a real basis for friendship.

After a children's concert which we attended one day at an orphan's home outside Moscow, we finished up by singing and dancing together. The children were delighted as we opened up with "There's a tavern in the town," the words of which they knew in Russian, and there were

many others in which we all joined. As we left the concert, a Russian girl who had come with us on this visit said to me, "During the first part of the evening you were just on-lookers. When you started to sing, I felt at once that we were all friends."

This was the spirit in which our journey round the Soviet Union was conducted. I hope that that spirit will not be lost.

S.C.R. ACTIVITIES

DURING the past few months the Society and its different Sections have been engaged in a number of varied and interesting activities, as may be realised from the following short summary. In addition to these special activities, the Society's services are continuously at the disposal of all kinds of organisation and of thousands of individuals who seek information of a specialised kind, who use the Library and the loan collections of pictorial material, gramophone records, etc., attend the Russian conversation evenings, wish to arrange for lecturers, and generally use the Society as a clearing house.

Architecture and Townplanning Group. The Group has received a number of very friendly letters from Soviet architects, and has been able to supply information on British affairs to, among others, Mr. Kuznetzov, Director of the Institute of Building Technique, Moscow, and Professor Vetchinkin, head of the Sector of Civil Engineering at the Moscow Academy of Municipal Economy. In response to the questions about Soviet architectural practice and other relevant matters, drawn up by the Group last year, the Architecture Section of V.O.K.S. has received from Academician Arkin, a very valuable set of replies.

Chess Section. Recent months have been spent in intensive preparation for the radio chess match between Britain and the U.S.S.R., arranged by the Section with the All-Union Committee for Sport in Moscow. The match took place on June 19th-22nd, at the Gambit Chess Rooms in London. It was opened by the Rt. Hon. Lewis Silkin, M.P. The Lord Mayor of London added the City's welcome and made the first move. Mr. Koukin, Chargé d'Affaires, replied for the Soviet Embassy. Great interest has been aroused in British chess circles by this important event.

Education Section. In addition to entertaining on February 11th Professor Petrovsky, an eminent historian from the University of Kiev, when he was in London for the U.N.O. session. The Sec-

tion arranged two informal discussion meetings with Soviet teachers, when members and friends had a most interesting and valuable exchange of views. On March 4th a former Soviet teacher of history Mr. Basharin was kind enough to answer questions put by London history teachers. On April 2nd a discussion on "discipline in school" was led by a Soviet colleague. The Section hopes a further opportunity for members outside London to meet some of their Soviet colleagues will be given at a Summer Course on U.S.S.R. which is planned for August 17th-24th at Exeter. Should there be any vacancies when this note appears, the Secretary will be glad to forward particulars. Material on the training of teachers in Britain is being collected by the Section for a Soviet post-graduate student who is writing a dissertation on British education.

Science Section. Forthcoming publications of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. have been listed and sent to scientific libraries through the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux. The Book and Translation Library Accessions Lists issued by the Section are proving of considerable use to members. A performance of popular Soviet scientific films, dealing with the life of the bee, and the habits of seagulls, was given at the Imperial Institute cinema on 9th April.

Theatre Section. The Soviet Theatre exhibition has visited Glasgow, Aberdeen, Kirkcaldy and Edinburgh, and was shown in Dundee in June. It was displayed in art galleries in the various towns, through the co-operation of the Scottish U.S.S.R. Society and branches of the S.C.R., and excellent attendances are reported everywhere. The Section arranged for an exhibition on "Life in Shakespeare's England" to be prepared under the guidance of Miss M. St. Clare Byrne, and this was sent to Moscow, at the request of the V.O.K.S. Theatre Section, in time to be opened on Shakespeare's birthday, April 23rd, at the

(Continued on page 19)

THE AZERBAIDJAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

By C. BETENOV

(Senior Consultant of the Council of Branches and Local Bases of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences).

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Azerbaijan S.S.R. (capital—Baku) is one of the sixteen constituent Republics comprising the Soviet Union. It occupies the eastern portion of the Transcaucasus, having a total territory of 86,000 sq. km. and a population of 3,209,727. In addition to Azerbaijanians, who constitute the majority of the population, there are Russians, Georgians, Armenians and Kurds. The Republic is rich in natural resources. It holds first place in the U.S.S.R. and one of the first places in the world for petroleum resources.*

THE official inauguration of the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences was held in Baku on March 30th, 1945.

The special meeting to mark this occasion was attended by members of the Government, scientists and people prominent in the country's public affairs.

The late Vladimir Komarov, then President of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, sent the meeting a message of congratulations on the establishment of a new republican academy. The message read in part: "The twenty-fifth anniversary of Soviet Azerbaijan is made all the more glorious by a new and joyous event in the history of Soviet science—the opening of the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences on the foundation of the Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. I am sure that the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences will continue even more deeply and extensively the study and mobilisation of the natural resources of the Republic, so that the national economy of both the Republic and the whole Soviet Union may be developed still further and so promote the progress of national culture."

The term, science, has a wider connotation in the Soviet Union than in Britain. It covers all learning and knowledge.

On March 30th, 1945, there were in the U.S.S.R., besides the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, the Ukrainian, Belorussian, Georgian, Armenian and Uzbek Academies of Sciences. The U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences had branches in Azerbaijan, Turkmenia, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Kirghizia, the Urals and Western Siberia and two local bases, one for studying the north and the other for the Far East.

Azerbaijan has enriched world culture with the works of such great poets as Nizami, Khagani, Nasimi and Fizuli.

Until 1920, however, the country had not a single research institute nor a single higher education institution. There are now more than sixty such institutes and educational establishments, with the Academy of Sciences occupying the leading position.

It was in 1923, on the initiative of the leading intellectuals in Azerbaijan, that the first steps were taken to set up a scientific centre to act as a rallying point

for those desirous of applying their knowledge and abilities to the development of the country.

In the spring of that year a group of Baku professors drew up the statutes for an association to investigate and study Azerbaijan. These statutes were approved by the country's People's Commissariat of Education and by the autumn of 1924 the Association was established with departments of history and ethnography, economics and natural science. There was also a special department dealing with the popularisation of knowledge about the country and another for assistance to schools. With the establishment of this association the foundation was laid for a planned study of Azerbaijan.

From its very start the young scientific association met with warm support from the leading scientists of the Soviet Union. Academicians V. Bartold, N. Marr and I. Meshchaninov visited Baku and made valuable suggestions for its activities; they delivered lectures, read papers and held consultations on various problems. Bartold's lectures were published by the Association under the title of *The Role of the Caspian Regions in the History of the Near East*, and became a valuable source for the study of Azerbaijan Near East history.

Within a year the Association had organised branches in a number of cities in the Republic. It created its own library with close on one hundred thousand volumes.

By 1929 the Association's work had expanded so far that the need arose to establish a large scientific centre in the Republic. In October, 1929, the Azerbaijan Government passed a decision to reorganise the Association into the Azerbaijan Research Institute with the following departments: natural science, economics, law, state and socialist construction, history and ethnography, language, literature and art, philosophy, the Soviet and foreign Orient. The training of personnel for higher education institutions was also centred in this Institute.

In 1931 this Institute was divided into two independent research institutes: the Institute of the Language, Literature, and

Art of Azerbaidjan, and the Institute for the Study of the Natural Productive Forces of the Republic. The latter comprised departments of physics, botany, chemistry, zoology, geology and technical sciences.

In the autumn of 1932 the Institute for the study of the Natural Productive Forces was merged with the Transcaucasian Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences as its Azerbaidjan Department. In the beginning of 1933 the Institute of the Language, Literature and Art of Azerbaidjan was merged with the Azerbaidjan Department of the Transcaucasian Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. The first chairman of the board of this Department of the Transcaucasian Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences was Academician F. Levinson-Lessing. In 1933 the new department had a staff of eighty and an annual budget of 615,000 rubles, of which 150,000 rubles was for research work.

In 1935 the Azerbaidjan Department of the Transcaucasian Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences was reorganised into an independent branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences by a special decision of the latter body. The first chairman of the new Azerbaidjan Branch was Academician Ivan Gubkin, the well-known geologist and specialist in petroleum.

On March 30th, 1945, in conformity with a decision of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R., the Azerbaidjan Council of People's Commissars set up the Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaidjan S.S.R.

This Academy of Sciences comprises four departments: geological-chemical science and petroleum, physics-technical science and petroleum, biological and agricultural science, social science.

The first fifteen members of the newly-formed Academy, which included some of the most prominent scientists in the Republic, were confirmed by the Council of the People's Commissars of the Azerbaidjan S.S.R.

At the same time the statutes and by-laws of the Academy were approved.

A decade of intensive research and work by the Branch organisation precedes the establishment of such an important scientific centre as an Academy of Sciences.

By 1939 the Branch organisation comprised seven institutes, five independent departments, three museums, a large library and its own publishing house. The staff of its laboratories numbered more than two hundred, among whom were one member and one corresponding member of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences, nineteen doctors of science and professors, twenty-six masters of science and more than one hundred senior and junior scientific associates. By 1939 the Branch had published sixty-nine monographs, of which the most important were *A Large Monograph on the Geological Description of the Azerbaidjan S.S.R.*, compiled under

the guidance of I. Gubkin, *The Flora of the Caucasus*, in four volumes, *A Geographical Dictionary*, in two volumes, *A Geographical Map of Azerbaidjan*, and *A Map of the Natural Resources of Azerbaidjan*.

In view of the rapid growth of the scientific activity and the increasing scientific qualifications of the personnel, the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. in 1939 granted several of the Institutes functioning under the Azerbaidjan Branch the right to confer the degrees of doctor and master.

Since the establishment of the Soviet government in Azerbaidjan hundreds of scientific workers, writers, poets and composers; thousands of engineers, doctors and teachers have arisen from the native Azerbaidjan population. The country has just reason to be proud of such intellectuals as Prof. Mir-Kasimov, a Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., the composer Uzeir Hadjibekov, another Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and winner of a Stalin Prize, Prof. Ahad Yakubov, specialist in geology and mineralogy, Prof. M. Topchibashev, winner of a Stalin Prize.

In 1944 the Azerbaidjan Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences comprised nine research institutes, five independent departments, four local bases in the largest districts of the Republic, a botanical institute, botanical gardens, a central library, two museums and its own publishing house. It had a total staff of five hundred, more than half of whom were Azerbaidjanians.

During the war the Azerbaidjan Branch conducted intensive research on the Republic's geology of the petroleum and ore deposits, its geography and economics, its soil, fauna and flora, on chemical problems connected with the petroleum industry, on the history of the Azerbaidjan S.S.R., its literature and language. It also carried on educational work through its museums.

Prior to the establishment of the Soviet Government, a large part of the Republic was practically unexplored geologically. Only 1,100 sq. km. of its territory were surveyed and a much smaller area charted in detail. The material accumulated by the Institute of Geology made it possible to chart a geological map of Azerbaidjan on a scale of 1:200,000 and maps of natural resources on the same scale. Studies on the geology and natural resources of the country were also published. In this way the blank spots on the geological map of the country were filled in.

A valuable contribution toward the solution of the problem of determining the origin of mud volcanoes and their connection with petroleum and gas deposits was made in the research carried out by Dr. A. Yakubov, published under the title of *Mud Volcanoes on the Western Part of the Apsheron Peninsula and Their Connection*



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with *Petroliferous Soils*. This work won its author a Stalin Prize in 1942.

The Institute of Geology also carried out prospecting and surveying of petroleum and gas deposits in subterranean strata.

Further, it compiled data on barite deposits in Azerbaidjan. Investigations of considerable scientific importance have been carried out in the stratigraphy and paleography of Miocene deposits as well as in fossil fish and the abundant remains of fauna discovered in the bituminous rocks of the post-tertiary period near the village of Vinograda. This site of fossil fauna is one of the most important ever found.

The Institute further carried out investigations of the rocks of the main petroliferous, so-called productive, strata on the Apsheron Peninsula as well as in other districts.

Geological and chemical investigations of the well-known mineral site at Isti-su together with detailed geological surveying and investigation of the radio-activity of the geological rocks of this site, served as a basis for the design for a health resort of country-wide significance and for the utilisation of all the properties of this valuable and health-giving water.

Considerable work has also been done in the study of naphthalan and the curative properties of the petroleum it contains. In connection with the war-time needs, a chart was compiled, listing the natural resources of the entire Transcaucasus region and their significance for industry. Particular attention was paid to scientific research on problems of power engineering. The Institute of Power Engineering, consisting of departments of water-power engineering, heat-power engineering, electric-power engineering and oil extraction carried out some very successful research on increasing the capacity of the electric power system and the lightning resistance of high voltage transmission lines. Its researches proved that ammoniac could be replaced by propane, a local product. The Institute also investigated the possibilities of using by-products of the petroleum industry and waste products of the timber industry in gas generators and similar installations.

The department of water-power engineering compiled a list of water resources and determined the potential resources of electric energy and their location in the Republic. A description of the potential power of sixty rivers was compiled together with a map on which this data is shown. Plans have been drawn up for a water collector in the vicinity of Baku and sites selected for pumping and turbine stations and an upper reservoir.

During the war, specialists of the Institute of Power Engineering found a method of locating leakages in pipe lines by the so-called hydraulic blow. This is of great importance in speedy determination of the exact location of the damage.

Methods were also found for preventing water from flooding the damaged hull of a submarine.

At the time of the Soviet Revolution in 1917 there were very few chemical laboratories in Azerbaidjan and these served only the immediate needs of various petroleum companies. For this reason the chemical department of the Transcaucasian Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences began its chemical research without an experimental base and without a sufficiently qualified staff. In 1944 the Institute of Chemistry was among the leading research organisations in the Republic, both in respect of equipment and personnel. It comprises four departments: petroleum chemistry, organic chemistry, physical chemistry and inorganic chemistry.

The Institute investigated the chemical composition of the carbohydrates contained in the light oil obtained from cracking products. It was the first to establish the possibility of identifying carbohydrates and extracting a number of valuable chemical substances from light oil. It worked out the technological process of obtaining stiroil and semi-stiroil from Baku oil products; it investigated all the larger deposits of shales in the Azerbaidjan S.S.R.; it established the possibility of manufacturing mineral dyes from local raw materials and carried out extensive research in the utilisation of the waste products of a number of industrial installations. The Institute devised methods for reactivising coal from the local iodine factory, extracting iodine from boraciferous waters by the application of electrochemistry (with an output of 70 per cent. iodine even from polluted water); for extracting bromine from boraciferous waters; removing iron from the local sands for the glass industry and thus replacing raw material formerly imported from the Far East. It also devised methods for treating astrakhanite by means of natural gas with the establishment of optimal conditions for obtaining magnesium oxide and sodium sulphide, a method of immense practical significance in view of the large reserves of astrakhanite in the Republic.

During the war the Institute concentrated its research on motor fuel, obtaining a sulphuric acid catalyzer and the utilisation of local raw material. In 1940 and 1941 the Institute published more than seventy papers of considerable importance for the national economy and for defence.

The Komarov Botanical Institute has done a great deal of research in the country. In ten years it published 190 volumes and a number of separate studies. The Institute compiled the first geobotanical map of the Azerbaidjan S.S.R. and founded a herbarium of Azerbaidjan flora that now contains close on 50,000 specimens of some 3,500 species. One of the most important departments of the Institute is its hothouse with a valuable

collection of cacti, palms, citrus trees, etc. A new botanical garden is now being laid out. The Institute conducted a survey of the flora in the Republic in order to determine the existence of rubber-bearing plants. A number of such plants were discovered, and these offered considerable interest for research in plant selection and genetics.

More than one hundred species of volatile oil-bearing plants were listed by the Institute. Some of these are now being cultivated. A number of them have been recommended to the perfumery industry as a source of oils. The juniper plant was also studied as a raw material for obtaining oil used for surgical dressings in accordance with Prof. Vishnevsky's method. Extensive research was also carried out in the study of vitamin-bearing plants.

The botany institutions of the Branch rendered notable assistance to agriculture. The Institute of Botany found ways and means of extra-radical nutrition of plants, perfected methods of topping cotton plants, suggested more efficient ways of using pasture lands and studied weed growths on cultivated lands and the methods of combating them.

During the war the Institute of Botany carried out several pieces of research on special war problems and published a large work, called *Raw-Material Flora in Azerbaidjan*. This work is in two volumes, the first entitled *Medicinal Herbs of the Azerbaidjan Republic*, and the second *Vitamin-bearing Plants in the Azerbaidjan Republic*. A number of reference works on these two subjects were also published.

The Institute of Zoology was one of the basic research units of the Azerbaidjan Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. It discovered a number of measures for combating weevils, domestic rodents, and various other pests.

A summary of the varieties of salmon and sturgeon found in the Caspian Sea was drawn up under the supervision of Prof. A. Derzhavin, the most noted ichthyologist in Azerbaidjan. A catalogue of the fauna of Azerbaidjan was compiled as well as a zoological-geographical map of vertebrates.

More than 145 memoranda on zoology were published in the *Transactions* of the Zoological Institute and the Azerbaidjan Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences. Since its foundation, this Institute has carried out more than 140 research projects of importance to national economy and defence.

The Nizami Institute of Literature and Language is the largest research centre for the study of the Azerbaidjan language and literature. In the ten odd years of its existence the Institute has done extensive research in the present-day dialects of the Azerbaidjan language, the rich folklore of the Republic and the history of its literature. The Institute edited and published the works of Fizuli, a sixteenth

century poet, Vagif, a poet of the eighteenth century, M. Akhundov, the founder of Azerbaidjan dramaturgy, and of others.

Its publications include a complete text of Nizami Ganjewis' works on the occasion of this great Azerbaidjan poet's 800th anniversary; a critical text of his *Khamsa*, based on all the extant copies of the poet's works and now recognised as the best and most authentic; the complete works of Nizami in four volumes; a two-volume *History of Azerbaidjan Literature*. Two volumes of Azerbaidjan folk tales songs and other material about Kachak Nabi, a national hero of the nineteenth century, have also been published. There is much more literary research and activity to its credit.

Historians have also carried out considerable research.

With the establishment of the Soviet Government, the most famous historians of the Soviet Union—N. Marr, V. Bartold, I. Meshchaninov and others—participated in the study of Azerbaidjan history. Meshchaninov was in charge of a number of archeological expeditions to the Mils Steppe, and of excavations of the ancient site of Uran Kala and the foothills of the Caucasus (Khodzhalinsk burial field). Altogether, ninety expeditions were sent to various parts of the Republic.

Many translations of Arabian and ancient Armenian source materials on the history of Azerbaidjan have been published. In addition to these, several reviews of source materials on the country's history have been brought out and fifteen historico-geographical maps compiled.

* * *

During the war years the Azerbaidjan Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences conducted 197 pieces of research on problems of defence. The results of 133 of these researches were introduced into actual production.

In addition to research work, the Azerbaidjan Branch did a great deal to popularise scientific knowledge among the people. In the period from 1941 to 1944 the personnel of the Azerbaidjan Branch delivered more than 2,000 popular lectures on scientific subjects. More than 400 titles of fundamental works and booklets were published in this same period. The *Transactions* of the Azerbaidjan Branch of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences appeared regularly every month.

Numerous scientific sessions, conferences and meetings were held to discuss the investigation of the Republic's natural resources, the history and culture of the Azerbaidjan people, and the popularisation of scientific achievements. During the war nine scientific sessions were held at which 215 papers were read on various problems of geology, chemistry, physics and mathematics, the liberal arts and the various fields of engineering. During the same period the Azerbaidjan Branch held travel-

ling sessions in various parts of the Republic on problems connected with the natural resources of those regions.

Twenty years have passed since the founding of the voluntary association of Azerbaijan intellectuals to study Soviet

Azerbaijan. During these years a tremendous amount of work has been accomplished. At the present time the country has a large number of its own qualified scientists united in the Azerbaijan Academy of Sciences.

(Continued from page 14)

Theatre Society. The opening ceremony was performed by Mr. Alexei Popov, director of the Central Theatre of the Red Army, in the presence of a distinguished gathering. The Central Theatre of the Red Army has also acknowledged with appreciation the material on Pinero sent by the Section earlier in the year, which has enabled them to proceed with their production of the Magistrate.

Writers' Group. Nikolai P. Bazhan, Kondrad K. Krapiva and Arkadi Perventsev, distinguished Soviet writers attending the sessions of U.N.O. as delegates, were entertained by the Group at a small reception on February 11th. On February 12th, George Reavey spoke on "Soviet Writing Today"; with Miss Bertha Malnick in the chair. On March 28th Mme. N. V. Ignatieva gave a lecture on the position of the Soviet writer, with V. S. Pritchett in the chair. An evening of music and poetry reading was held on May 1st, when Michael Redgrave, V. Rogoff, Jnr., and George Reavey read in English and Russian, and Victor Carne and Norman Lumsden sang. A commemoration of the anniversary of Maxim Gorki was held on June 18th.

Exhibition Department. Arrangement of the Scottish showings of the Soviet Theatre exhibition has been supervised by the department, which also prepared the display of the "Life in Shakespeares' England" exhibition. Three photographic exhibitions have recently been received from V.O.K.S., "Victory Year," "Red Army Campaigns" and "Soviet Sculpture," and are being circulated. Surplus material has been sent to societies in Ceylon, India and Palestine.

General. A growing feature of the Society's work is the demand made for the co-operation of several departments in satisfying one enquiry. Examples are the "Soviet evening" held by the U.N.R.R.A. European staff association, when in addition to the exhibition "Friendship of the Peoples of the U.S.S.R.," books and music were lent from the library, and artists suggested for the musical programme. A similar service was provided for the Cambridge University Inter-services Russian Course, and an exhibition of books arranged for a Youth Organisers' Course organised by the Ministry of Education at Westfield College. The Society's resources are also extensively used by army education officers.

IVAN MIKHAILOVICH SECHENOV

(1829—1905)

By K. S. KOSHTOYANTS

(Member of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian S.S.R.)

PROMINENT among the great men who are the pride of the Russian people is Ivan Mikhailovich Sechenov—founder of the Russian school of physiology.

Sechenov was a contemporary of the great Russian democrat and revolutionary, scholar, writer and philosopher, Nikolai Chernyshevsky, and belonged to that group of the intelligentsia which formed the backbone of the revolutionary movement of the 'sixties. This group of the 'sixties fought against Russian autocracy in the political field and against idealism in the field of philosophy and science. The popularisation of the progress made by natural science played a great rôle in this remarkable movement of Russian social thought. The outstanding and brilliant representative of natural science in this period was Sechenov.

Ivan Mikhailovich Sechenov was born 13th August, 1828, in the village of Tyoply Stan, Simbirsk Gubernia (now Gorky region), where he spent his childhood.

His parents intended him to enter the Kazan Gymnasium, but when his father died in 1839 his mother decided to send her son to a military school. Her choice fell on the Chief Engineering School (Mikhailovskoye), in St. Petersburg.

Upon graduating from the Mikhailov School as an officer in the sapper service, Sechenov was posted to Kiev, where the usual military career awaited him.

At this period, however, powerful new forces were awakening in Russian society. The passionate articles written by the great Russian critic and thinker Belinsky, were being read in all parts of the country. Herzen's voice was ringing out louder and louder. Students flocked to the auditorium of the Moscow University when Professor Granovsky, the distinguished Russian historian and public figure of the 'forties and 'fifties, lectured there.

Sechenov first heard Granovsky's name in 1848, while in Kiev. He began to read much and pondered taking up a medical profession, which would give him the opportunity of serving the people. After persistent efforts, he procured his release from the Army. In October, 1850, he came to Moscow and entered the medical department of the Moscow University. In Moscow he immediately joined the circle around Professor Granovsky.

Sechenov's philosophical views, which brought him into the ranks of the inspired naturalists of the time, were moulded by classical Russian philosophy. His teachers were Belinsky, Herzen, and Chernyshevsky whose close friend, follower and assistant he was.

The Russian materialist philosophers considered that the study of natural sciences was of profound significance in the shaping of a revolutionary world outlook. Chernyshevsky, Herzen, and Pisarev ardently supported the development of the natural sciences. "Letters on the Study of Nature" and other philosophical articles by Herzen ran out as a call for the mastery of natural science.

After graduating from the Moscow University in 1856, Sechenov went abroad to prepare himself for independent scientific work. His independence of mind made itself evident from the moment he began research. He chose as his problem "The Effect of Acute Alcoholic Intoxication on the Organism" and elaborated his own plan of research. The theme suggested itself to him by social conditions. His work in this field formed the basis of his paper, "Material for the Future Physiology of Alcoholic Intoxication" (1860).

His researches entailed the study of the gases in the blood, and for this purpose he designed a new instrument, later called an absorptometer. This served as a model for the many later designs by different European scientists, and of those at present employed for the study of respiration in the blood and tissues. In studying the effect of various substances on the neuromuscular system Sechenov discovered that his results on the effect of potassium thiocyanate on the nerve muscle did not coincide with those of the famous physiologist Claude Bernard. Reproducing the latter's experiments, Sechenov found the error.

His experiments in determining the effect of alcoholic intoxication on the human organism required a subject whose nutrition would be quantitatively and qualitatively constant for quite a long time. Failing to find a suitable person who would observe the strict regime necessary for these experiments, he used himself as a subject.

After three years in laboratories abroad, the young Russian scientist rose to the rank of the most distinguished physiologist of the time.

An opportunity presenting itself, Sechenov returned to Russia in February 1860, to join the professorial staff of the Academy of Medicine and Surgery in St. Petersburg.

His lectures in the Academy of Medicine and Surgery, accompanied by brilliant experiments, began to attract large student audiences.

In that same year Sechenov's intention to apply for the vacancy of assistant Professor in physiology and anatomy in the Academy of Sciences met with violent opposition from a section in the Academy. Seeing the position hopeless, he withdrew his application.

The brutal repression of the students by the tsarist Government, the prohibition of Chernyshevsky's lectures, the unleashed fury of the reaction, made the conditions intolerable for Sechenov's work. In the autumn of 1862 he took leave of absence and went to Paris to work with Claude Bernard. There he made a discovery that has made his name immortal. While experimenting on frogs, he discovered special mechanisms in their brains which suppressed or inhibited reflexes—motor reactions that took place in response to external stimuli. By a simple experiment employed to this day, Sechenov determined the speed of a reflex response to a stimulus.

After repeating these experiments many times, he established the fact that there are centres in the brain which can exert an inhibitory or repressive effect on the speed with which reflex acts are performed. This discovery came to be known as central inhibition, while the centre of inhibition itself was termed the "Sechenov centre."

Sechenov resolved to verify the correctness of his conclusion on himself. He knew that the reflex that caused a person to jerk his hands back could be retarded by various means, as by grinding the teeth together, by straining the muscles of the chest and abdomen and holding the breath. Knowing this, he immersed his hand in a solution of sulphuric acid. By a strong effort of will, he made an attempt to retard the reflex of jerking back his hand. The sensation of burning in his hand ceased and did not return as long as he maintained the tension of his muscles by will power. This he deemed a remarkable confirmation of his conclusions.

Sechenov's discovery threw light on the work of the nervous system, on that intricate work with which man's psyche and mind are connected. The door was opened to a comprehension of the tremendous variety of the organism's reflex responses to external stimuli. The curtain was also lifted from the phenomenon of man's will checking the appearance of reflexes, even to the extent of stopping such rhythmic muscular contractions as those of the cardiac muscles. Careful to refrain from hasty conclusions, Sechenov yielded more and more to the idea of checking his

experiments on human beings. In his mind he was already developing the main propositions of his future famous treatise, *Reflexes of the Brain*, in which special importance is attached to the mechanism of inhibiting reflexes in explaining intricate psychological acts and acts of will.

This work was published in 1863 in the *Medical Bulletin*. Its appearance won Sechenov respect and the warmest esteem among all progressive people in Russia while evoking stormy protests from reactionary circles. A court case was instigated against the author, distribution of the book was stopped. Its sale was prohibited for more than a year. Only the fear that these measures might stimulate interest in the book forced the tsarist censorship authorities to raise the ban and permit its further publication and sale.

In *Reflexes of the Brain*, Ivan Sechenov first lifted the curtain from the hitherto dark realm of psychological phenomena. He showed that the deep secret of consciousness could be revealed by applying the methods of natural science—materialistic methods.

With an audacity remarkable for his time, Sechenov extended his conclusions to all the functions of the brain. He considered the process of thought itself a complex reflex, a reflex in which the last link, that of motion, was subjected to inhibition.

He drew far-reaching revolutionary deductions from his claim of the formative effect of external stimuli on manifestations of the activity of the psyche. He claimed that the evidence of science attests the equality of all people and the possibility of raising people of even the most backward nationalities to a high cultural level by means of education and training.

His work served as a starting point for the later work on the theory of conditioned reflexes—the greatest achievement of modern science. In one of his lectures, Ivan Pavlov, the author of this theory, said: "I consider the starting point of our investigations to be the end of 1863 when Sechenov's famous *Reflexes of the Brain* appeared."

Sechenov and Pavlov stepped over the barrier between "spiritual" and physical that was thought to be impassable. They demonstrated convincingly the unity and inter-dependence of physical and "spiritual" activity. It was this that gave Ivan Pavlov the right to say in a letter written in 1934 to the Leningrad Physiological Society:

"Yes, I am glad that together with Ivan Michailovich Sechenov and my many dear collaborators we have acquired the whole, undivided animal organism instead of only half of it for the mighty power of physiological research. This is wholly and indisputably Russia's service to the world of science, to human thought in general."

Sechenov insisted on applying the

methods of scientific physiological investigation to psychology. This was a bold, complicated and vast task. He had to review the vast quantity of literature on psychology, and critically appraise and revise existing theoretical claims in the field of psychology. From the letters he wrote in this period we learn of his disillusionment with European psychological and philosophical literature, especially German literature of this kind.

To the idealistic view of the European and Russian psychologists, Sechenov opposed the materialistic views, looking upon man and all his manifestations as an indivisible part of nature. In an article which he published in the journal, *European Bulletin*, dealing with a book by Kavelin called *The Tasks of Psychology*, Sechenov wrote:

"Man is a definite unit in the series of phenomena that make up our planet, and all of him, even his spiritual life in as much that can be an object of scientific research, is an earthly phenomenon. Mentally we can separate our body and our spiritual life from everything about us just as we mentally separate colour, form or magnitude from the whole object, but is this separation real in actual fact? Obviously not, for that would mean to sever man from all the conditions of his earthly existence."

The general results of his prolonged work in psychology were published in a book called *Elements of Thought*. The conclusions drawn by Sechenov from his psycho-physiological researches coincide with those of his inspired pupil, Ivan Pavlov, who said at an international physiological congress: "I am convinced that the important stage of human thought is approaching in which the physiological and the psychological, the objective and the subjective will really merge, in which the tortuous contradiction or opposition of my mind to my body will either be virtually resolved or will naturally fade away."

Sechenov was able to undertake this work in one of the most difficult fields of natural science because he had made a very thorough study of the fundamental laws governing the physiological processes in both the central nervous system and its peripheral departments which made possible the success of his work in psychology. This discovery of a whole series of basic laws governing the activity of the central nervous system and, primarily, the phenomenon of so-called central inhibition played a great rôle in his psychological research.

He discovered and was the first to describe the phenomenon of summation in the central nervous system. He explained a whole series of processes which were later studied and described in detail by many scientists in western Europe.

As early as the eighties of the last century, Sechenov and N. E. Vvedensky, one of his closest pupils, described one of

the most important laws of the physiology of the central nervous system establishing the mechanism regulating the activities of various antagonistic muscles. The present conception of the physiological mechanisms controlling the co-ordination of motions in animals is linked in modern physiological literature with the English physiologist Sherrington, whereas it is to Sechenov and to his pupils that science is indebted for the formulation and experimental demonstration of this theory.

Of great significance in our modern conception of the mechanisms regulating complex acts of co-ordination of motion is the conception of the presence of sensory nerve endings in the muscular elements.

Present-day conceptions of the rôle of the muscles as a sense organ were likewise first formulated by Sechenov.

His discovery in 1881 of the periodic electric oscillations in the central nervous system is another scientific contribution, a discovery widely developed today.

Very important is the work done by Sechenov and his pupil Vvedensky, in the study of the physiology of the peripheral nerves. Like his discovery of the phenomenon of central inhibition (Sechenov inhibition), the phenomenon of inhibition in the peripheral nerve fibres (Vvedensky inhibition) forms the basis of the researches now being carried on in the leading physiological laboratories in the world.

Special mention should be made of certain of Sechenov's work which is little known: his studies in physics and chemistry. He began to investigate blood gases at the beginning of his scientific career and came to the conclusion that it was necessary to study the physico-chemical laws of coagulation and the discharge of oxygen and carbon dioxide by the blood in the process of respiration in the animal organism. He devoted more than thirty years of his scientific career to this study in the course of which he not only discovered the essence of the processes of coagulation and the discharge of gases by the blood, but also a whole series of phenomena which were of importance to the further development of physico-chemical problems. He elaborated a special formula, called the "Sechenov formula," determining the distribution of gases in salt solutions. This formula has recently been confirmed anew by an American research worker.

Sechenov's researches into the gases of the blood not only revealed a new law governing the physical chemistry of solutions, but enabled him to foretell a series of phenomena which were subsequently discovered by foreign research workers in their experimental work.

His researches in blood gases as related to the respiration of organisms enabled him to undertake the study of an altogether new problem of the physiology of man—the physiology of man in flight. In the 'eighties, in connection with the crash

of the French aeronauts in the balloon "Zenith," Sechenov presented, simultaneously with the French physiologist Paul Bert, the first physiological estimates of the causes of death and indicated the physiological methods of combating disturbances in the respiratory functions of the tissues in the course of high altitude flights.

Sechenov applied all the findings of physiology to a study of the processes taking place in the human organism under actual working conditions. He strove to find the physiological mechanisms that could be of aid in combating fatigue. There has come down to us a fine photograph showing Sechenov, at the age of seventy, performing an experiment upon himself aiming to discover how to remove fatigue from the muscles of the human arm caused by prolonged rhythmic movements.

His remarkable book, *Outlines of Working Movements*, which was published at the beginning of the 'nineties, formed the basis of a new field of physiology—the physiology of work.

The beginning of the 'seventies was a bitter time for Sechenov. His scientific activities in the Academy of Medicine and Surgery aroused the disfavour of the tsarist Government. The reactionaries, alarmed by the growing popularity of the talented scientist and by his revolutionary influence on the progressive students, resolved at all costs to rid themselves of this unsuitable professor. In 1870, therefore, the founder of Russian physiology was virtually driven from the Academy of Medicine and Surgery.

The famous chemist Zinin's efforts to use Sechenov in the Academy of Sciences failed.

Deprived of the possibility of continuing his work in physiology, he found temporary shelter in the laboratory of his friend, Dmitry Mendeleev.

His friends, however, were not indifferent to Sechenov's fate. Their persistent efforts were finally crowned with success, and in 1871 he was elected professor of physiology at the Novorossiisk University in Odessa, where he continued his special researches (particularly on blood gases).

In 1876 Sechenov was elected professor at the University of St. Petersburg. His twelve years' work in this university (1876-1888) did much to further development of Russian physiology and science as a whole. He built up a brilliant school of Russian physiologists.

The Professors' Council of the

University of St. Petersburg nominated Sechenov for the title of Professor Emeritus, but the nomination was rejected.

In 1888 he was obliged to leave the University of St. Petersburg. He spent a whole year in the country, and only because of the insistence of his friends did he at last venture to accept a post in the Moscow University. The world-renowned physiologist, who had founded the chairs of physiology in the Academy of Medicine and Surgery, and the Universities of St. Petersburg and Odessa, was now appointed to the modest post of lecturer.

In Moscow he began to give lectures in the physicians' club. This provided him with the modest means with which to purchase the scientific literature he required.

At this time Karl Ludwig offered Sechenov the use of his laboratory, but Sechenov declined the offer. He did not want to work abroad, considering that a scientist ought to conduct his scientific and pedagogic work in his own land. He looked upon this as the scientist's moral obligation to his nation.

Only in 1891 did Sechenov become a professor at the Moscow University.

On 4th December, 1904, there at last came the day when the Imperial Academy "deemed it a special pleasure" to elect Ivan Sechenov an honorary member of the Academy of Sciences. This official recognition, however, came a little too late. The next year—15th November, 1905—Ivan Sechenov died.

The last year of his life Sechenov devoted exclusively to the enlightenment of the people. In 1903, at the age of seventy-four, he accepted an offer to teach in the Prechistensky Workers' Courses (or, as they were called, the Prechistensky classes). To this audience of workers he gave an extensive course in the anatomy and physiology of the human organism. The pages of his *Autobiographical Notes* which are devoted to this period in his life and work show how deep was the feeling of love for his audience—Moscow factory workers—and how great was his sense of the importance of the work he was then doing. "Work, work, work," Sechenov said, two weeks before his death, in his last talk with Timiryazev. "These were the last words I ever heard from him," wrote Klimenty Timiryazev. "They were the behest of a great generation that was retiring from the scene to the generation that was just emerging upon it."

GORKI

By E. TAGER.

*On 18th June, the anniversary of Gorki's death
was widely commemorated in the Soviet Union.*

THE name of Gorki has winged its way round the countries of the world; it has become near and dear to millions of people. A master who created wonderful treasures of art, an artist who gave the world a new word, Gorki in his pictures of the heroic man and the creative people, supplied the answer to the problem that had been disturbing the whole world: What was to be the type of man of the future, and what was to be the rôle of the people in the life of mankind?

Making free use of Pushkin, it might be put this way: "What is emerging in art, what is its aim? Man and the People, man's fate and the people's fate." The significance of a great writer lies just in this, that he gives his own solution to these problems lying at the core of art, a solution prompted to the artist by history.

The legal heir to all that was best in Russian literature from Pushkin to Tolstol, Gorki caught its great tradition; its testifying to truth, its humanity, its essential Russianness. He enriched these characteristics with the new artistic and ethical content of socialist culture and became the leader of the young Soviet literature. He was the tangible link between the art of yesterday and that of tomorrow. That explains the great respect which his thought and art commanded not only among Russian readers, but among all progressive thinkers in the world.

Gorki was the son of a carpenter-cabinet maker who died young. Alexei Maximovich Peshkov—Gorki's real name—spent his childhood in Nizhniy-Novgorod (now Gorki), an ancient town on the Volga. He lived with his grandfather Kashirin, who in his youth was a barge hauler on the river, and in his later years became the owner of a dyeing yard. At the age of ten Gorki left the home of his grandfather, by then a ruined man, to go out into the world to become self-supporting.

From that moment began the fantastically variegated fate of the future author. He tasted to the full the poverty, hunger and suffering of the common people tortured by blows, by hunger and by degradation.

Gorki was an errand boy in a bookshop, a dishwasher on a boat, a pupil in an ikon workshop; later a porter at Volga harbours, a baker, a railway watchman and much more.

Twice young Peshkov wandered off across the vastness of Russia, covering thousands of miles, from Nizhniy-Novgorod to the Caspian Sea, from the Roumanian frontier to the Caucasian

mountains. It was not so much the search for a livelihood, which drove him over the endless spaciousness of his country. It was rather the spiritual unhappiness, the aching heart which reacted so sharply to the evils of life, the pain caused by trying to understand the terrible fate of the people. At every turn he met, on the one hand, animal stupidity, and the cynical hardness of the *bourgeois-philistine*, and on the other devastating, life-destroying labour, hopeless darkness and dirt, and a general callousness.

How was it he survived? Why did he not share the fate of the numerous band of talented people, who were lost without trace in the inchoate mass of humanity? He was saved by his inexhaustible creative strength, by his indestructible love of life, by his profound belief in life rooted at the very seat of national consciousness. He was saved by the beauty of the poetry of life, by books whose value was first brought to his notice by a ship's cook. It was books which compelled Gorki to believe in a different and better life.

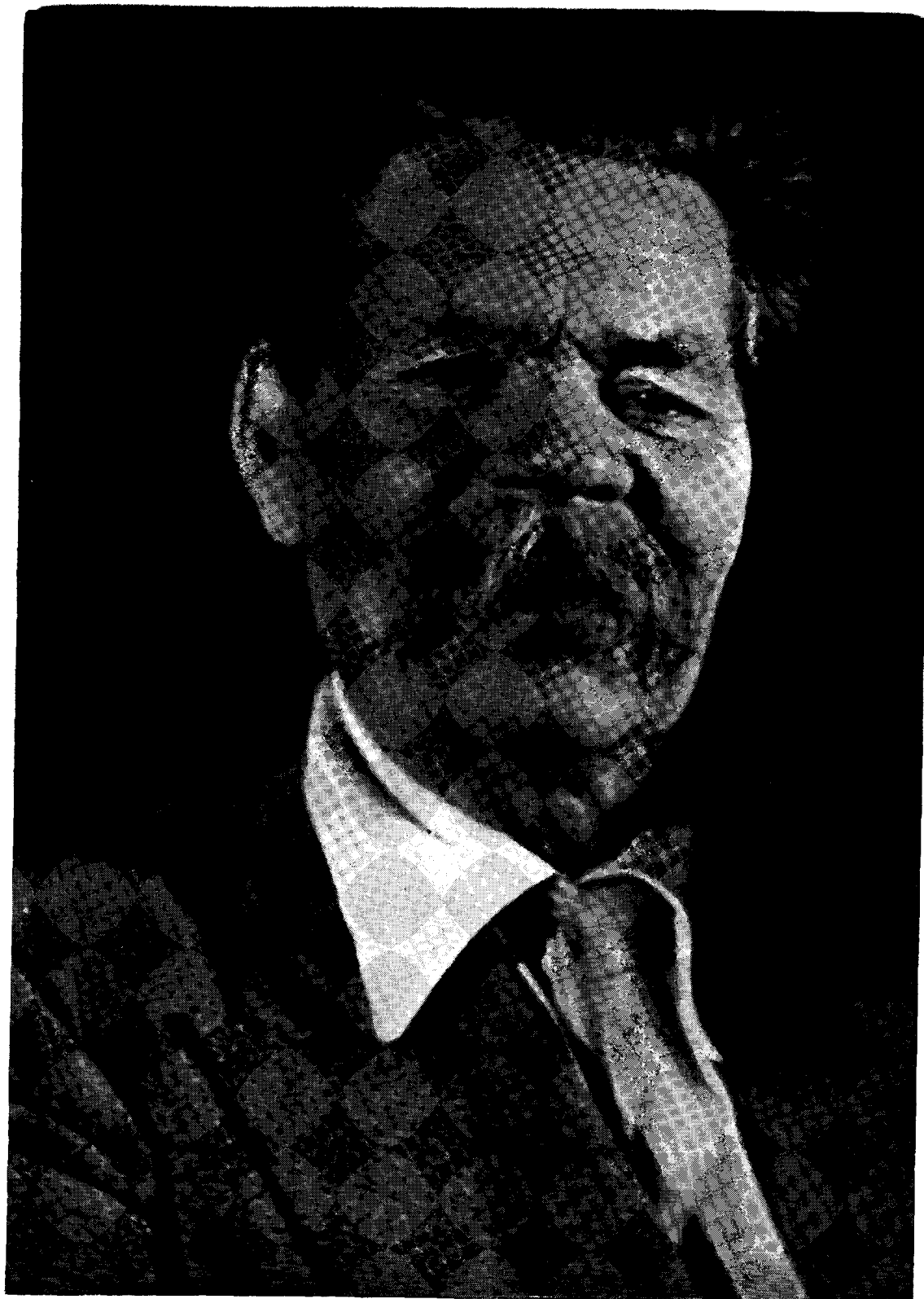
In Kazan, in Nizhniy and in Tiflis, Gorki met the progressive revolutionary youth of the later 'eighties and 'nineties. Here the character of the fighter ready to use all his force to reshape the unfortunate world, becomes more clearly defined.

During these years of searching, of avid and disorderly reading, the thought of becoming a writer had not yet occurred to him, but already he had an exercise book with some youthfully naïve and romantically emotional poems recalling his enthusiasm for Heine and Byron, shouting a rebellious slogan: "I came into this world, but not to obey."

His first story, *Makar Chadra*, was printed in the local Tiflis newspaper. That moment settled his future path. He became an active contributor to the newspapers in Samara and Nizhniy-Novgorod, which published articles, sketches, reviews and stories by him.

The well-known author Korolenko, who helped Gorki so carefully and lovingly in his first literary steps, enabled him to get some of his articles placed in the first rank journals of the capital cities. When in 1898 two volumes of short stories made their appearance, real fame came to the young author.

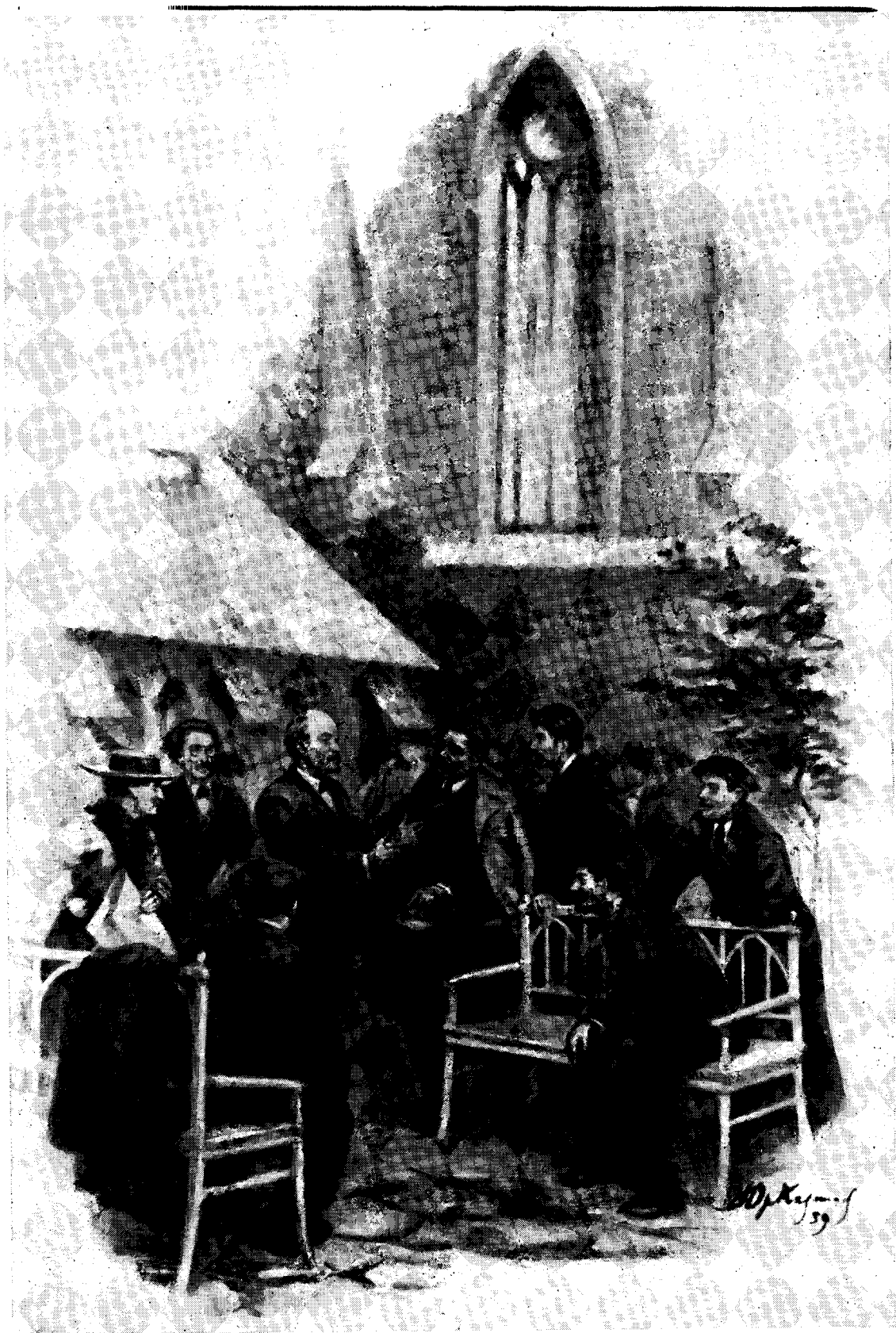
To the growing popularity of Gorki, in whom millions of readers heard the tocsin call of the rebellious forces of young revolutionary Russia, the tsarist government replied with police search, arrest and exile. But it was a hopeless task to



М Горький

MAXIM GORKI.

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Maxim Gorki attended the Fifth Congress of the Russian Social Democratic Workers' Party held at Southgate Church, London in 1907. He is seen talking to Lenin.



Gorki (seated) with Chaliapin on whom he had considerable influence.

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Maxim Gorki (standing centre) with the Moscow Art Theatre cast in his play
The Philistine Bourgeois, staged in 1902.

Gorki was a great lover of children, thousands of whom corresponded with him.
 With a group of Pioneers.

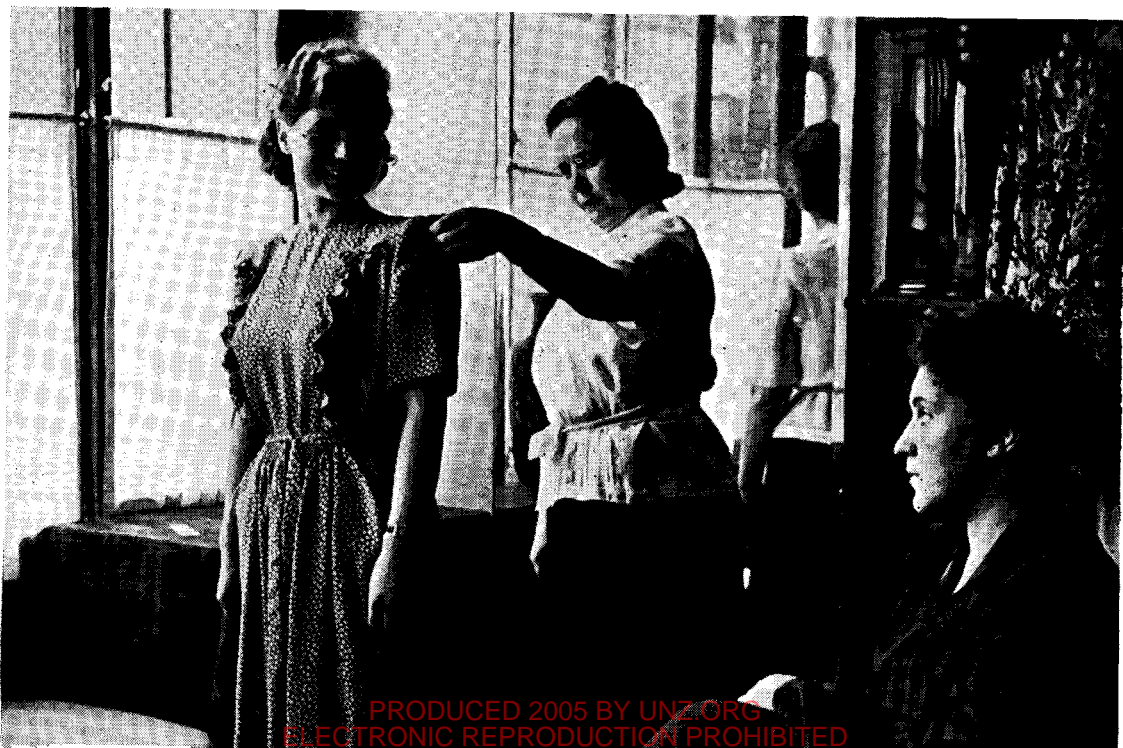




Discussing new designs for fabrics in the Art department of the Krasnaya Rosa textile works.

WOMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

Two women pilot heroines of the Tuman Air Regiment find time to visit the dressmaker.





WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

Anna Kongurova worked on a collective farm in the Altai territory. During the war she became a skilled fitter in the tractor works. Now she is an instructor.

WOMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

Freshmen in the History Faculty of Moscow University appear to be mostly women including demobbed officers: former Lt. Lobkovskaya commanded a sniper company.



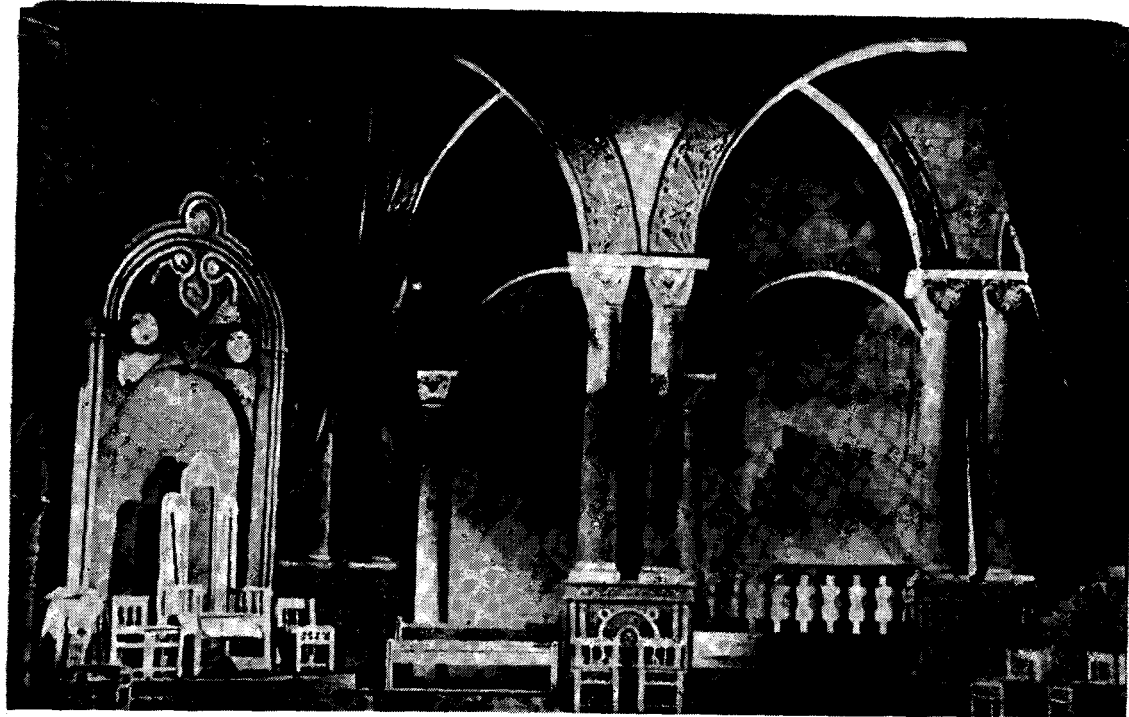


A corner of the Children's Room in the Belorussian Station, Moscow.
During the long waits for long distance trains mothers can leave their children
in these rooms under trained care.

THE RUSTAVELLI THEATRE.

A scene from *La Tamara*, by Rakavidze. An early production in the Georgian
State Theatre showing Meyerhold's influence.





A set for the play *Georgi Saakadze* at the Rustaveli Theatre.
The decorations of the architectural designs are typically Georgian.

RUSTAVELLI THEATRE.

A scene from *Georgi Saakadze*. An effective setting lending itself to grouping.





Polina Chernova, for eight years chief engineer at the Krasnaya Shveya clothing factory has a discussion with shop managers.

WOMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

Women students of the Komsomalsk on Amur ship-building Institute study the electoral law.





Master of sport, Nina Polyakova off for a skii run.

SOVIET WOMEN



Georgian Nina Dunbadze established a world record for discus throwing.

hold back Gorki's popularity as the foremost democratic literary and social worker.

The conquering force of Gorki's work lay not only in the talent and originality of his characters, but far more in his ability to show the way out of the dead end of social stagnation and passivity. He eschewed the greyness, the dull and heavy naturalism which under the name of Zolaism in the West and in similar movements in Russia, announced itself as the birth of great realist art.

It is profoundly symptomatic that his first story, *Makar Chadra*, was a popular hero-legend about proud and free people who valued liberty more than life. Gorki entered literature as a poet of the heroic, as an artist of man's beauty, integrity and strength.

He re-creates the tradition of the freedom-loving romanticism of Pushkin and Lermontov, Byron and Schiller, and through a deeply moving symbolism, through colours of a blinding brightness, he affirms the ideal of a man of exploits, of a hero, a man who will transform life.

In his songs of *The Falcon and the Petrel*, in the romantic tales and legends *Old Woman Izerguil*, *Death and the Maiden*, he glorifies "reckless bravery," the selfless readiness to give one's life for the happiness of mankind. Bound by the chains of "environment," man, as created by the naturalists in art, a supine, weak and decadent creature, has yielded place to man as created by Gorki, a man freed from chains and creative, the "lord of the world." "For me man is always the victor, and even if wounded to the death, or dying," he wrote.

He wrote a moving philosophic poem called *Man*, in which there emerges a great picture of the proud, rebellious, powerfully armed thought of man.

* * *

In the 'nineties, Gorki produced a cycle of tales of the dregs of human beings thrown overboard from life's ship, *Chelkash*, *They Were People*, *Malva* and others. The author was never tempted to use the exotic in these people's life and avoids even the tragedy of their hopelessness and oppression. He writes of freedom, of the pride of being a man, of the spark of genuine humanity in everyone, all of which are in direct opposition to the meanness and little-mindedness of the *bourgeois-philistine* society.

The same theme is found in Gorki's early novels. In *Foma Gordewew* against the background of a richly coloured and brightly painted picture of the life of the Volga merchants, there unfolds the drama of the rebel-hero, a drama that overflows with profound social thinking. The hero is a clean, honest youth, whose natural striving towards love, truth and labour is in insoluble conflict with his upbringing with the cynical dishonesty, with the beast-of-prey rapacity of his class. A similar antagonism between the "per-

sonal" and the "human" is the theme of the novel *Three*.

In the early 'nineties, through the influence of Chekhov, Gorki came into close contact with the Moscow Art Theatre, the chief arbiter of profound theatrical realism.

As a result of this, we had the plays *The Philistines* (Meshchane), *The Lower Depths*, *Children of the Sun* and many others. They showed great originality in combining the realist-impressionism of Chekhov drama with the urgent and complicated socio-philosophical theme. The best of them, *The Lower Depths*, was not only a great event in the history of the Russian theatre, but it achieved a triumph on nearly every European stage. The pitiless truth with which Gorki portrayed the ragged human flotsam and jetsam cried aloud his praise of man. "Man—the word has a proud ring."

The background for his writing in the 'nineties was the mounting storm of the proletariat's movement for freedom. He joined the workers' revolutionary party, the Bolsheviks. An eye-witness of the shooting down of the unarmed workers' demonstration of 4th January, 1905, by the tsar's soldiers, he thundered a passionate call to rise against tsarism. For this he was sent to the Petropavlovsk fortress, but was released later as a result of the pressure of the mounting protests from the whole world.

In 1906 Gorki went abroad, visiting Western Europe and America. It was in the U.S.A. that he wrote the play *The Enemies*, and the novel *The Mother*, both the result of his experiences in 1905. This brilliant epic of the struggle of the revolutionary proletariat was immediately translated into the main European languages.

In this story of the awakening of the revolutionary activity of the common people, Gorki gives a portrayal of man, who in the process of the struggle for socialist ideals, becomes spiritually clean and raises himself upright. The portrait of Nielovna, a simple Russian woman, down-trodden and completely uneducated, gradually becoming a selfless fighter against oppression and for truth, for the happiness of a free mankind, rises before the reader as an image of the highest nobility and spiritual riches.

In this novel the author interweaves realistic truth with deeply moving romantic pathos. Clearly he shows up evil; he trumpets his belief in high, positive ideals. It is a skilful analysis of the social origin of action with a full understanding of the future upward path of historical development. It is here that Gorki shows the originality of his talent, his use of "Socialist realism."

This open opposition to tsarism closed the doors to a return to his homeland. Compelled to remain abroad, he settled at Capri. Here he did not slacken for one moment his politico-literary activities. From this island he directed the demo-

cratic publishing house "Znanie" (knowledge) carried on an intensive correspondence with the different literary and political circles in Russia, took part as artist, critic, and publicist in the Russian revolutionary movement.

It was in this period that he made the acquaintance of Lenin, an acquaintance which ripened into a close, rich friendship. It was not till 1913 that Gorki was permitted to return to Russia. He became the central figure in the organisation and mobilisation of the whole of the progressive literary forces. . . .

The inter-revolutionary period 1905-1917 was as creative as the others, producing narratives, stories, and two volumes of the autobiographical trilogy, *Childhood* in 1913 and *Among the People* in 1916. *My Universities* was not completed till after the revolution in 1923. The prolific output of this and the following period, based chiefly on his own experiences, gives the world a grandiose gallery of portraits.

The emotionally-romantic colourfulness of the early years gives place to a realist accuracy which brings before the reader a physically tangible, finely drawn subject. All this skill of his in etching scenes and drawing characters is now united in one theme—the people, the life of the Russian people. The people as theme now appears with the same persistence as did in his early period the heroic individual.

In the period of reaction and official terror which followed the 1905 revolution, in the decadent literary camps, the cult of ultra-individualism of self-appreciation, of an egoistic introversion, as opposed to the social body, was fashionable. With it went a cynical, completely irresponsible discrediting of the common people. This reactionary thinking which preached the innate incapacity of the common people to act and to create based itself on the defeat of the revolution.

It was exactly in this period that Gorki published a number of articles, *The Destruction of Personality*, *Cynicism*, etc., in which following on his recent hymn to Man, he sang a hymn to the People, as the eternal, undying creative force. "The people is the boundless source of energy: it alone is capable of turning the possible into the necessary, of turning dreams into realities."

For Gorki, the People was never a featureless mass, a physical abstraction. For him, the People was made up of creative individuals. He always emphasised the complicated nature of the Russians' spiritual life, his high moral demands, his exceptional giftedness. In the gallery of heroes that he created—tramps, craftsmen, workers, watchmen, porters—he depicts in reality a whole range of poets and philosophers. And though they have not risen to the surface of life, they are none the less worthy of attention. Gorki was the singer of active

love towards people, of a joyous faith in the beauty of the world and of Man.

The last and concluding period of Gorki's creative efforts, which covered the post-revolutionary years, is marked by a search for a final synthesis, by productions of the highest order, which in a special sense was the crown of all his creative work. *The Artamonov Business* in 1925, two volumes of the uncompleted trilogy of drama, *Yegor Bulychov and Others*, *Dostygayev and Others* in 1932-33, and lastly the four-volume novel, *The Life of Kliema Samgyn*, these are genuine epics of creative art, characterised by a vastness of sweep and breadth of comprehension.

History, the dynamics of historical development, was theme and subject for these works. Gorki unfolds the dramatic process of the development and fall of old bourgeois Russia, a process which led to the creation of the first Socialist country in the world.

What is really important in these works is that their value is not limited to their historical character. They are not chronicles of history, but philosophical and historical epics in which events and action have an inner philosophical and historical unity of thought.

Thus in the three generations of the family Artamonov, Gorki brings before us with rare skill the graphic story of the Russian *bourgeoisie*, its late, but stormy appearance, its brief triumphs and inglorious death. Alongside these broad social types and generalisations, Gorki portrays the profound individual personality of his heroes.

It is this philosophy of history lighting up the march of social development which distinguishes his works from the many similar West-European examples, such as T. Mann's *Buddenbrooks* or Galsworthy's *Forsyte Saga*. This philosophy is based on a recognition of labour, of creative labour, as the only source of the riches created by mankind, as the only motive force of progress in science. Only those social forces which are united to life-giving labour elements, are capable of development, are adapted to life. The Artamonov curse, which drags from generation to generation, sucking their strength away, is not the result of biological law, but of the ever-growing social parasitism, of the complete separation from creative activity. This inevitably brings in its train a loss of integrity and vividness of character, an impoverishment and extinction of the personality.

The Life of Kliema Samgyn, that gigantic canvas, depicts the most important events in forty years of Russian history. The novel centres round the problem of individualism, as the core problem of bourgeois culture as a whole. Gorki set

himself the task of destroying the bourgeois conception of personality, of showing that not in the individualistic opposition of "I" and the world, not in the shutting off of "I" from society and from the people, but on the contrary, in the fusion of "I" with the group was to be found the possibility for the genuine flowering of the personality.

In the chief character—Kliema Samgyn—Gorki exposed the "godlike" heroes. Removing the mask of "the unique personality" of man, of "free thought," and of "aristocratic spirit," Gorki showed its real face, the face of a bankrupt. Samgyn was a hero of pretentious falseness, a wearer of fake riches.

Thus with images of vast social forces, Gorki laid the real curse of Cain on all that hindered mankind in the fight for freedom and happiness.

Gorki's activities were not limited to his writings. Preaching an "active approach to life," this poet of labour, this man in whom was united the psychology of the fighter and the worker, astonished everyone with his energy, with his inexhaustible capacity for work, with the breadth and variety of his activities. He was at one and the same time, publicist, literary critic, editor, journalist and publisher, social worker and the initiator of many cultural activities.

* * *

In the first years of the young Soviet state, in the difficult conditions of hunger and devastation born of the civil war, blockade and intervention, Gorki started a publishing concern, "World Literature," with a well-thought-out plan, to give the people excellent translations, with commentaries, of all the treasures of world literature of the West and the East. He set up a board of scholars, poets and translators, inspiring them with his own enthusiasm and astonishing them with his knowledge of the most complicated and abstruse historico-literary questions.

Gorki took part in many scientific societies, whose aim was to spread scientific knowledge among the people. Establishing contacts, as he did, between the foremost intellectual forces in the country and the Soviet Government was

politically of great value. He set up an aid organisation for scientists, and taught young authors the secret of good writing.

Work of such an intensity, under such difficult conditions, affected his health and accentuated his old malady of tuberculosis. On the insistence of Lenin, Gorki went abroad for a cure. He spent nearly two years in different sanatoria, and then settled in Sorrento.

Absence from Russia did not cut off his activities. He continued them by correspondence, a colossal correspondence.

He returned to his homeland in 1928. Four years later, the fortieth anniversary of his career as an author, was celebrated as a national festival. Now his friendship with Stalin, as earlier his friendship with Lenin, helped him to take an active part in the building of the new society. He was full of ideas for literature. Now it was a series called *The Poet's Library*, or *A History of the Younger Generation of the Nineteenth Century*. Then it was a collective historical work, *The History of the Civil War*, or *A History of Mills and Factories*. Another time it was a whole range of journals.

For the Soviet reader, Gorki is first and foremost a teacher. . . . Well-known Soviet authors were Gorki's pupils in one form or another: Ivanov, Fedin, Makarenko, Gladkov, to name only a few. In 1934 he became head of the newly formed Union of Soviet Writers.

He wrote much on questions of history, literature, criticism and the theory of art. As a correspondent to many newspapers, he exercised great influence. His central theme was that of the nation freed from serfdom setting out to turn their entire country into a blossoming garden.

He believed in implacable hatred towards the enemies of human happiness, and recognized fascism as such an enemy. Fascist agents had their revenge on Gorki, whom they feared. They brought about his death.

Speaking at an obituary meeting on the Red Square, in Moscow, Molotov said: "Next to Lenin, the death of Gorki is the most irreparable loss for us and for humanity."

Translated by Beatrice King.

THE RUSTAVELLI THEATRE

By ALEXANDER FEVRALSKY.

Edited by Beatrice King.

TBILISI (Tiflis), the capital of the Union Republic of Georgia, is very proud of its twelve theatres where plays are given in four languages, Georgian, Russian, Armenian and Azerbaidjhan. Three of the twelve theatres belong to youth, where first-class professional companies perform to children ranging from eight to eighteen.

The outstanding theatre in the city is the Rustavelli Georgian Theatre of Drama. It is both the largest and the oldest theatre in Georgia. On three occasions its company has performed in Moscow, in 1930, 1933 and 1936, and it has visited Leningrad, Kiev and Kharkov. Highest recognition of all came when the theatre was awarded the Order of Lenin, the highest distinction, by the Soviet Government.

The theatre's repertory is extensive and all-embracing: Georgian, Russian and European plays, classical and modern plays, all come within its scope. Rustavelli productions have their own style, a heroic style reflecting that heroism innate in the Georgian peoples who for centuries fought for their right to be a nation. In the Rustavelli heroism bears the flavour of romance, emotions are strong, temperaments vivid, no mild heroes, but men passionate in their love and their hate. Everything in a production is boldly underlined, the actor's tones are rich and full, his gestures sweeping, vigorous, and impetuous. Life is surging all the time. The producers are given to a rapid tempo, broad canvasses and mass scenes.

A style such as this requires very great skill from the producer and the actor, or it can come dangerously near monotonous ranting. The quality of the Rustavelli Theatre is shown just in this—that it avoids an over life-size uniformity by careful study of differences and variety in the expression of human emotions, by employing the widest range of expressiveness, by balancing drama with comedy, tense emotion with lyricism, and by the widest use of music.

The Georgian theatre generally is intensely musical, and music is an organic part of every production, adding its own motif to the whole design.

The theatre in Georgia is essentially national, that is the music, the art of the scenic designer, the setting of the stage and the movements, all express the national character of the Georgian people. The centuries old folk dances and folk songs are woven into the productions. But the Rustavelli Theatre can never be accused of an exclusive nationalism. It

willingly uses the achievements of the Russian theatres as well as of Armenia and Azerbaidjhan, its neighbours, but it recreates these achievements and then weaves them into the national Georgian pattern, giving it added durability.

The Rustavelli Theatre was born at a critical moment in the theatre life of the country. In the Russia of the beginning of the twentieth century, the theatre had sunk to a low ebb. Plays had little relation to the life of the people, productions were mediocre and often pointless. This crisis persisted longer in the Georgian theatre than in the Russian theatre, for Georgia was some time after Russia to become Soviet, and it was the advent of the new Soviet regime which stirred the theatre out of its sloth and mediocrity.

In 1920, a theatre with a permanent company, the Georgian State Drama Theatre, was opened in Tbilisi. The building was the beautiful theatre built by the Pitoyevs—Armenian patrons of art—while the company included the best Georgian actors. But there was no new direction, no one to make the company aware of the new pulsating life that was emerging, nor to show them how to cast off the old, worn out, stereotyped theatre garment.

The theatre proceeded as though there had been no revolution in the land. Productions of domestic or classical Russian plays were mechanical, mediocre, lifeless, reminiscent of a backwoods provincial town.

In two seasons, 1920-1922, the company put on thirty-five plays, and often the theatre was rented to other companies. The people reacted by staying away, audiences grew smaller and smaller.

The theatre company was greatly troubled at this state of affairs. In meetings at the theatre, and among authors, dramatists and art workers they discussed the situation, they searched for methods whereby on the basis of Georgia's fine theatre tradition, and using the skill and experience of the older actors, they could create a national theatre that would meet the demands of modern Soviet Georgia. The revolution had created a new theatre public, workers and peasants, who went to the theatre seriously, not just for amusement or because it was the correct thing. They expected the theatre to help them clarify the new ideas, to indicate solutions to new problems and to open to them in a comprehensible form the rich treasure house first of Georgian, then of world drama.

The theatre found the leader the situation demanded in Koteh Marjanishvili, a man full of vision with thirty years' experience, who had the gift of inspiring those around him to conquer doubts and obstacles. Working in Moscow and Kiev after the revolution, where he gained a reputation as a producer of Russian drama and musical drama, he had developed his natural gifts and had obtained valuable experience in organising a revolutionary theatre.

Marjanishvili had no special system for production, no set programme, but he had what was of infinitely greater value, talent and a passionately creative temperament.

Thus at a meeting called by the Georgian Commissariat (now Ministry) of Education to discuss the fate of the Academic Theatre, when the company was described as being quite incapable of carrying on, he insisted that this was not the case. There were many gifted actors among them, but the theatre lacked guidance—"We must take the actors we have and show them the right path through a repertory specially designed to re-educate them."

Marjanishvili was urged to produce at least one play to prove his point. Looking round, he was faced with a complete absence of any Georgian play suitable for his purpose of reviving the Georgian theatre. In Kiev, on 1st May, 1919, he had staged Lope de Vega's drama, *Fuente Ovejuna*. Kiev was then in the Civil War, and this story of the uprising of Spanish peasants against the feudal tyrants in the fifteenth century was very real to the Ukrainian peasants and workers fighting for their freedom against modern tyrants. The theme was one that would make a strong appeal to the common people of Georgia, and Marjanishvili decided to stage it. Seven weeks' rehearsal, very short as Soviet productions go today, and the first performance was given on the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the birth of Lope de Vega, 25th November, 1922.

The production was simple, but designed to stir the imagination and arouse the emotions. The *mises en scènes* were striking and magnificent, the composition of mass and group scenes showed great mastery. There was a splendid sense of rhythm, colour and dynamics. This exaggeration of every theatrical medium was deliberate, a weapon against the inertia, the lifelessness of the Georgian theatre. Concentrating on this immediate object, much in the production remained traditional. The same conventional settings—city buildings painted blue and yellow with blue and yellow spotlights on the stage, were used throughout the three acts. A curtained arch backstage, on the right, by opening and closing the curtains, solved the problem of frontstage and backstage actions. Its shortcomings notwithstanding, the production was a great

success. Here in Tbilisi, unlike Kiev, the Georgian producer was supported by actors with Georgian temperaments. On that first night the producer and actors received an ovation from the audience. The critics were loud in their praise. Two weeks later, Marjanishvili was appointed art director of the Rustavelli.

He had given new life to the company, let them see through this first production the possibilities of new forms, movement, rhythm and colour for the stage, made them realise their kinship with the new life and the people building the new life.

The theatre ceased to be a platform for the demonstration of the talents of an individual actor. It was on the road to becoming a unified organism, alive and creative, combining the powers of all its members into a whole far greater than the sum of the individual parts.

This production had far-reaching effects. As an immediate result, two important theatres were born, first the Rustavelli and later, in 1928, the Marjanishvili. It was in the Rustavelli Theatre where he remained from 1922 till 1926 that Marjanishvili grew and developed. He was tireless in his search for art forms that would fuse the old Georgian culture with Soviet Georgia's modern needs and aspirations. Naturally there were failures, inconsistencies and short-comings. In spite of all these, and even with their aid, a new life, a new vitality was given to the Georgian theatre.

Plays were a continuous problem in that early post-revolutionary period, and Marjanishvili turned for some of them to the Georgian domestic dramas, approaching them with a new eye and mind. Thus he made the comedy, *Solar Eclipse in Georgia*, by Zurub Antonov, reveal strikingly dramatic qualities. His stage was alive with colourful and amusing mass scenes, while the characters showed a vigorous realism.

From the first days at the Rustavelli Theatre, Marjanishvili trained producers and actors, more and more of whom belonged to the younger generation. They were inspired by the boldness of his conceptions, their horizon was widened by his infinitely varied approach to the dramatic material, their art was enriched by the wealth and vividness of the forms through which the producer expressed the playwright's ideas on the stage. His skill in combining modern realism with conventional methods was great.

His aim was to make the theatre representative of every phase of drama so he produced mysteries and operettas, domestic comedies, and even pantomimes.

In 1925 he and his young producers staged *Hamlet*, an ambitious project. The production showed considerable originality in the interpretation of the chief characters, and was characterised by a rich emotional content.

When he left the Rustavelli Theatre in 1926 he had made it a rich, vital organism

ready to continue in the road indicated by its gifted director.

The repertory was all the time enlarged. In 1928, Jacinto Benavente's expressionist comedy, *Vested Interests*, was produced with great success. The Rustavelli's own playwright today, Sandro Shanshiashvili, not so well known then, gave the theatre a number of his plays, while another new play, *Earthquake in Lisbon*, by the talented dramatist, Polikarp Kakhadze, was given its first performance in this theatre.

As Soviet drama was developed, so it became possible for the Rustavelli to stage plays on Soviet themes. Soviet Russian plays were translated into Georgian and sometimes adapted to Georgian life. For example, in 1928 Vsevolod Ivanov's play, *Armoured Train 1469*, was at the Rustavelli, renamed *Anzor*, after the hero. The action was transferred from the Far East to Daghestan—nearer home.

In time, Georgian plays on Soviet themes made their appearance, which gave more scope to national characteristics. All the while the leaders in the theatre were searching for a national style in stagecraft. As a foundation, they used the plastic and musical qualities, intrinsic in the Georgians. Much attention was paid to mass scenes. Every actor on the stage, while preserving his particular individuality, had with his movements and gestures to fall into harmony with all the others. Here they were greatly helped by the theatre's chief stage designer, Irakli Gamrikeli. An example of his work was the terraced stage-set, representing a mountain village in the third act of *Anzor*. The roof of each house was a platform. Suddenly from all sides appeared people who arranged themselves on these platforms, giving the impression of vast crowds filling the village on the mountain-side.

This search for national forms, however, led to idealisation of the primitive. There were still many places where life was untouched by modern thought or ways. This tendency, which had an adverse effect on the theatre's productions, was halted by its new directors appointed in 1935, Vasadze and Khorava. As a result of their direction there was great improvement both in the repertory and in the quality of productions. New plays dealing with the Georgian peasants' fight for freedom, with incidents from the Civil War, with heroes from Russia's history, with the young revolutionary Stalin, as well as such plays as *Cyrano de Bergerac*, brought once again a renewal of life to the Rustavelli.

The theatre has not ceased to be national, but it is enriching itself by the dramatic wealth of other nations, and as a consequence enriching the whole cultural life of the country. National peculiarities and customs are no longer regarded as unchangeable biological characteristics, but rather as forms which are shaped by history and existing social patterns. The

primary concern of the Rustavelli Theatre today is *Man*, and the stage is one means of helping him to greatness.

The directors, Khorava and Vasadze, both gained their opportunities and experience after the revolution. Khorava defined his mission in the theatre when he stated that "We need a heroic theatre. . . . If our theatre-goer, after he leaves the theatre, does not feel profoundly elated about every exploit and every heroic action, it would be better if he did not attend the theatre at all."

Khorava himself is an outstanding actor. With his natural gifts of a deep, resonant voice, and expressive lively countenance with bold features enhanced by large flashing eyes, with a tall and stately figure, he is almost the perfect exponent of the heroic in drama. To these qualities should be added a fiery passion and great power which he can keep restrained when need be—"Passion, fire, thought, feeling and wisdom are the surest means of achieving conviction on the stage," asserts Khorava. His Shakespearean rôles, as may be expected, include Othello and King Lear.

For his great services to the theatre and to films as producer, actor and teacher, and for his social work, he has received many state decorations and was elected by the people a deputy to the Supreme Soviet.

Vasadze is an equally fine actor and teacher. His most striking characteristic is versatility. His performances show the same quality of excellence whether the rôle is Herod in Oscar Wilde's *Salome*, Iago in *Othello*, or Crispin in Benavente's comedy *Vested Interests*. "To combine the romantic winged quality of our art with profound thought and great artistic ideas is the principal task of the Rustavelli Theatre," said Vasadze. The same is true of his own art.

His productions show infinite care of detail as well as boldness in conception of form and design. Like his colleague, he has been decorated for his work within the theatre and outside the theatre, and like his colleague he was elected a deputy to the Supreme Soviet.

Othello at the Rustavelli, produced by Shota Agrabadze with Khorava as Othello and Vasadze as Iago, was a memorable performance. In this production *Othello* is not a play about jealousy. Othello himself is presented as a big-souled, straightforward, honest man. His tragedy is not only the betrayal by his beloved, but equally so the betrayal by the friend. To him nothing is more loathsome than treachery and betrayal.

Vasadze makes Iago a worthy opponent of Othello. He shows him a man of great cunning and malice, handsome, graceful, every movement, every gesture calculated to achieve his end. A malicious light burns in his eyes. The performance has a rhythmic lightness and almost a musical quality.

Another notable production at the

THE RUSTAVELLI THEATRE

Rustavelli is Ostrovsky's *Innocently Guilty*. The company here succeeds in bringing out the drama of the play, which is not always the case with the production of Ostrovsky's plays in other theatres.

An outstanding actress in the Rustavelli is Noulisa Chkheidze, one of the older generation. She gives an unforgettable performance as Kruchivina in *Innocently Guilty*.

The Rustavelli continued producing during the war, one interesting play being an

adaption of Sardou's *Patrie*, which had a great success. The war has stimulated Soviet playwrights and many new plays from authors of the different Republics will no doubt be presented on the stage of the Rustavelli. But it will always remain a Georgian theatre. The vigour and virility, the zest for growth, which characterise the Rustavelli give assurance that difficulties will be overcome and mistakes corrected, and that it will march forward to the highest level of attainment.

"THE TEA ROSE"

By BORIS LAVRENEV

ZHORA FEMELIDI was a Balacava Greek. Now the Balacava Greeks, as a race, are in a class of their own. Nowhere else can there be found such a tempestuous and happy merging of bloods, such a fortunate combination, as in the natives of Balacava. That's why they grow up to be more effervescent than mature wine; riotous fanciers of a spicy joke, recalcitrant heartbreakers—and as unconquerable as the tower over their town, which neither the centuries nor the raging sea winds could destroy.

Like every native of Balacava, Zhora was excessively ambitious, touchy, and quick-tempered. He was like the viperous plant which clings to the sea rocks and is known as the "sea cucumber." Its insignificant fruit, rather like a gherkin to look at, spits out wet seeds, like an enraged camel, at the slightest touch of an unwary passer-by. Zhora lost his temper just as instantaneously and noisily at the least offence, and he considered anything which did not coincide with his wishes, or did not correspond to his own opinion of himself, as an offence.

He was lanky, swarthy of complexion, supple and slim, and the pupils of his moist Greek eyes glistened like bits of highly polished pure anthracite soldered into the pale blue marble of the whites. In the Company he had the reputation of being an excellent soldier but a noisy bawler, and a quarrelsome and restless man. It was precisely for this reason that Lieutenant Sedelnikov, picking out five men to be sent to the snipers' squad of the battalion, put the name of Femelidi as the first on his list. On the one hand, he thereby hoped to spare himself the discomfort of the inevitable stormy conversation about "undeserved insults," and on the other, he secretly hoped to have at least some rest from that boisterous descendant of Homer.

Zhora failed to see through the lieutenant's cunning. He took the appointment as an honourable distinction and his "bits of anthracite" flashed merrily. Then, without waiting for the rest of the men to get ready, he picked up his kitbag containing a pair of pants, an opened bottle of "Red Moscow," a razor and his favourite mandolin, and set off to the battalion H.Q. to look for Senior Sergeant Bondarchuk—the instructor of the snipers' squad. On the threshold of the hut pointed out to him as the H.Q., however, he saw a sailor sitting engrossed in the task of darning a pair of pants. He replied to Zhora's inquiry with the information that the sergeant was away, seeing the battalion commander and would be back in about half an hour.

The sun was at its zenith. The sultry day, brownish with the heat, spread over the rocky countryside like burning lava. Streams of scorching air vibrated in space.

Zhora, as a true native of Crimea, loathed the heat and began to look for some sort of shelter, but it is difficult to find a really refreshing coolness on the bare Sevastopol hills and he had to make do with such little shade as the weak, consumptive-looking bushes of a locust tree could provide.

To while away the time while waiting, Zhora took his mandolin out of his kitbag, settled himself as comfortably as he could, and having surveyed with abhorrence the blazing blueness above him, began strumming a tango—*The Weary Sun*. In spite of the heat he played with rapture and did not even notice a sharp blue shadow fall across the mandolin.

"What an uncomfortable place for a concert . . . but your playing's not bad,"—the words came in a clear, deep voice and Zhora looked up in astonishment, then blinked hard as if he had glanced at the sun and scorched his eyes.

He saw a slender young girl in army uniform. A flattened forage cap sat nicely sideways on her neat, small head. Her fluffy hair looked golden in the sun. She had a beautifully chiselled nose, childishly pouting lips and her sun-tanned face seemed to be lit up by the warm light of her eyes—as blue as the sea in the bay.

Zhora was dumbfounded, but embarrassment is not in the line of a dyed-in-the-wool native of Balacava. Jumping to his feet, he smiled irresistibly, clicked his heels, and with exaggerated delight exclaimed: "Kalimera-Kalispera! Magic play of nature! Surpassing all imagination! What striking individuality!"

The girl's eyebrows quivered and met in a frown. Looking him straight in the eye, she asked with unexpected abruptness:

"Who are you?"

Zhora did not like that. He expected a totally different reaction to this infallible approach, frequently tried out on feminine psychology—she could have shown embarrassment, shyness, or given him a roguish smile, but not. . . . How dared this little chit treat him—a hardened front-liner—in this manner? And who was she herself, anyway? Some sort of a nurse at best, perhaps only a radio operator or an A.A. gunner. Yet she put on airs as though she were a commander!

"I ask you, who are you?" repeated the girl, even more sharply.

The whole of Zhora's being became taut with fury—like a "sea cucumber" in readiness to spit out its venom. Baring

thirty-two dazzling teeth and narrowing his eyes arrogantly, he yelled:

"Look here, young lady, as you seem incapable of appreciating refined conversation, just you beat it—double quick! Hm! Some TEA ROSE!"

Into the last epithet he put all the furious contempt for the cheeky slip of a girl which was boiling in his heart by now. The expression on the girl's face remained unchanged, as if Zhora's insolence had passed unnoticed.

"Excellent!"—said she, with complete composure. "Pleased to meet you. I, for your information, am Senior Sergeant Bondarchuk. To begin with, comrade naval rating, I shall confine myself to reprimanding you for unseemly affectation and rudeness. And if you do not want to earn a more severe rebuke, be good enough to answer my question."

Zhora was stupefied by the unexpected turn of events. Only now did he notice the green triangles on tabs of the same colour. Despite himself, quite automatically, he straightened up.

"Naval rating Femelidi, No. 3 Company, reporting to you, comrade senior sergeant," he managed to squeeze out with great difficulty, and with a tongue suddenly gone dry.

The girl's eyes blazed over him with intolerable brilliance, and he wished he could have gone through the ground when he heard her voice saying disdainfully:

"A very valuable acquisition. All my life I spent dreaming of having just such a treasure sent to me one day. Report to Warrant Officer Trenogov: he will show you your quarters. You may consider yourself free until you are summoned."

And turning her back on Zhora, Senior Sergeant Bondarchuk went away, stepping lightly over the rocks. Picking up his mandolin, Zhora, in some dismay, went off to find Trenogov. That square-shouldered, round, lively little man, after the first few words, looked hard at Zhora's long face and asked him sympathetically:

"What's the matter with you? You look as lost as if your mother-in-law had come to stay with you permanently!"

Zhora made a hopeless gesture and told the warrant officer all that had happened. Trenogov scratched his freckled nose.

"Yes, you put your foot in it, good and proper," said he, with manly compassion. "You'll have to be pretty well on the alert from now on—that . . . 'tea rose.' She has a prejudice in favour of discipline. But she can shoot—can't say anything against that. Any other sort of a sniper shoots the Hun just anywhere in the eye, but she aims at the very pupil. You'll see for yourself."

Zhora spent the rest of the day bored and uneasy. His future looked miserable to him. Nothing can be worse than a bad start with one's superior officer. Nothing good ever comes of life after that. Zhora was heaping abuses on himself in the best Balaclava style, choosing words as biting and caustic as cayenne pepper.

"One-eyed flat-fish! Blind sea-bear!"—he muttered under his breath—"couldn't even distinguish the badges of rank . . . But who could have guessed . . . Bondarchuk! Bondarchuk! . . . You can't judge the owner's sex by a name like that! I never thought! . . . You have done it this time, Zhora—now look out!"

In this disturbed state of mind he fell asleep. After reveille, he was summoned to the senior sergeant. Zhora appeared before his senior, gloomy and depressed. Sergeant Bondarchuk surveyed him critically from head to foot.

"You look all right—like a good soldier, while yesterday you were sickening to behold. Like a red-haired clown in the circus."

Zhora was cautiously silent.

"Can you handle a rifle?" asked Bondarchuk.

Zhora began to shake. This really was too much! Yesterday he might have answered such a question. My goodness, how he would have answered that! But now he only went dark with rage, and barked: "Two years' service, comrade senior sergeant! They did teach us a thing or two. . . ."

"Well, I don't know. You'll have to learn a lot of things over again. Sniping sometimes is not so much shooting—as knowing how to wait until one ought to shoot. To do this one must be able to see. To begin with, we'll check up on your skill in observation. Come on."

Obediently, Zhora trudged along, following the senior sergeant. In spite of the fury which was consuming him, he began to admit to himself that the sergeant was a bit of all right as a commander.

They picked their way to a camouflaged sniping position on the top of a hill. Below, the road, white with dust, wound its way. Fallen telegraph poles, tangled in torn wire, lay along it. An overgrowth of wild plum trees clung to the opposite slope. Bondarchuk pointed it out to Zhora and said:

"Go over there until you reach the point where the road turns toward the valley. Lie down and watch, for two hours. If you see a man, cart, horse, something flash or smoke, remember the spot and take a bearing by compass. You do know how to use a compass? Good. . . . Everything clear?"

"Clear," said Zhora, sullenly.

"Don't open fire until they begin to fire directly at you, that is when it becomes evident that you have been discovered. Then you can fire back at them, but, of course, you must avoid it. The sniper must be able to see, but remain unseen. Off you go! I'll wait for you here. And bear in mind that it is pretty dangerous out there."

Zhora threw back his head like a horse whose halter has been given a jerk. Cruel, feline lights flashed in his eyes. What on earth does this . . . this tea rose think she is, anyway? And he snapped back:

"I've been in worse messes, comrade senior sergeant. Fighting is not as simple as frying mackerel." Bondarchuk, however, refused to understand the impertinent reference to domestic duties:

"Very well. Less words—more action! Suvorov said that long ago. Carry on with your orders."

Zhora climbed out of the sniper's nest and began crawling to the appointed place. He reached it without incident, noted a shallow pit under the bent trunk of a blackthorn bush, climbed into it, and, having broken off several branches to clear the view, covered himself with them and began looking around. Below was the same road. Across the road several charred craters showed black. Evidently the road had been under a short but severe shelling. A bit further, a steep, whitish-yellowish rock, with damp stains from the rain, rose sharply over the road. Its soft stone had been sawn with ordinary wood saws for the buildings of Sevastopol. There were narrow black crevices in it—it was in the northern end of the Inkerman catacombs. Right opposite Zhora was another slope covered with wild plum trees, down it wound an irrigation gully. In the valley he saw the faintly bluish outlines of gardens, and still further, beyond them, rose the jagged mountain peaks. Pale flashes of lightning flared up now and then over these peaks, accompanied by the dull rumble of thunder. From over there the German artillery was firing at the town.

Zhora scanned every curve, every cranny, straining his eyes, trying not to move, not to turn his head. He had already observed a supply cart, which had made a dash through the valley, a light smoke rising—perhaps from a camp fire, or, perhaps, from the field kitchen behind the fence of a battered farmstead. Then an indistinct figure flashed by and disappeared into one of the crevices of the cave, and Zhora noted this crevice—it was marked by a corroded rock overhanging it. Then for a long time he did not see any signs of life and even began to feel bored when, suddenly, a white, curly-haired dog jumped out of the gully. It squatted down on its haunches and began to whine.

Zhora looked hard and saw that the dog had a pale blue ribbon tied around its neck. This astonished him. Evidently the little dog has lost its masters in the turmoil of battle, and was now hungry and roaming about the countryside. Zhora felt sorry for the poor little brute. He decided to call it and to take it to the battalion—anyway, it would be fun for the chaps. He gave a low whistle. In the drowsy, sultry air his whistle should have been heard a long way away, but the little dog continued to jump about and whine without hearing his call. Zhora raised himself on his elbows and whistled louder. At the same moment he felt as if his skull had been split by a shattering crash. Stunned, he ducked back into his hole so quickly that he hit his nose on a rock. All went

dark suddenly and it took him some time to realise that the darkness was caused by his helmet, which had been driven over his eyes. He took it off and saw a slanting hole with sharp, ragged edges of steel sticking out around it just to the left of the peak. At once he broke out in a sweat—a trifle more to the right and the bullet would have been in his head. Putting his helmet on again, he tried to move back—and immediately a bullet ploughed up the rubble by his shoulder, raising a white cloud of dust.

Now Zhora caught sight of the flash on the edge of the gully, next to the little dog, which was no longer jumping and yapping, but lying on its side, its little paws stretched out stiffly. It dawned on Zhora that he had let himself be caught by a trick, like a silly ass. "Just you wait! You so-and-so!" whispered Zhora, white with rage and resentment—"Just you wait!"

He took aim slowly and carefully at the little dog. Hit by a bullet, it leapt up into the air, and cotton-wool stuffing flew out of its body.

"Aha! There goes your little dog! That settles the Hun's little dog-breeding schemes!" rejoiced Zhora.

The German also got angry and lost his self-control. He fired a whole burst of ammunition, digging up the ground all round Zhora's head, but this gave him away altogether. Zhora saw the black barrel of a tommygun, a grey-green clad shoulder and a head over the butt of the gun, and he sent a bullet into that head. The tommygun gave a perk and dropped down.

"Well, how do you like eating pickled egg-plant *à la* Soviet?" muttered Zhora through his clenched teeth, and wiped the sweat from his brow.

On the opposite slope lay the tattered little dog and the black barrel of the silenced tommygun. Zhora kept his eyes glued to it. He would not have been a native of Balacava if he had not wanted to capture the enemy gun. Throwing a quick glance all around and seeing no danger of any kind, he crawled out of his hole, but scarcely had he covered a couple of yards when two bullets caught up with him. One burrowed deep into the ground, hissing like a snake; the other seared his left shoulder. This made him dive back into his hole headlong, his heart pounding like a trip-hammer. He realised that he was trapped and that they were hunting him. He did not know how many of the enemy there were. For all he knew, there might be a whole platoon of Fritzes staring at him with their goggle-eyes. Zhora felt his wounded shoulder. It was burning, but he could move his hand and arm, although each movement was agonisingly painful.

He lay still, breathing heavily and thinking. Of course, it was hopeless, trying to get out of the hole now. But they wouldn't get him just like that! He would

part with his life only at a high price, so that, back home in Balaclava, they should sing a proud song about him—Zhora Femelidi—as they did about the black-whiskered ancestors armed with scimitars and pistols, whose fly-speckled portraits hung in every house in Balaclava. He closed his eyes, recalling Balaclava, and his whole body rebelled against death. He had lived too little, and had not yet drunk enough of the sour wine, or loved enough of the fiery-eyed Balaclava maidens. All his bitterness against Sergeant Bondarchuk welled up inside him. She must have known that this was a trap when she sent him there. She took jolly good care not to go there with him, sent him alone to face death. And roused him by her allusions to dangers! The devil take her! She was quietly sitting somewhere in a dug-out, not caring a hoot that the twenty-two-year-old naval rating Femelidi was perishing here.

He raised his head a little to find out where the enemy might be, and this movement nearly cost his life again. The bullet scraped his helmet. Then, trembling with rage and utter inability to accomplish a purpose, he dug his teeth into a dry twig, biting at it furiously. At this very moment a deafening shot burst over his ear. Zhora shied sideways, convinced that the enemy had sneaked up from behind, but, on turning his head, he was struck dumb—for from beneath the rags of a camouflage cloak, festooned with leaves, a pair of blue eyes—as blue as the sea in the bay—were fixed on him!

"Are you alive?" asked the familiar clear voice, pouring warmth into Zhora's heart. "Lie still, don't move . . . I've picked one of them off."

Zhora lay quiet. He saw the sergeant's rifle, placed on a rock, move slowly to the left and stop. Zhora stared in the direction in which it was pointing, but saw nothing at all except thick foliage. A shot rang out, blasting heat over him, and a German came tumbling out of the undergrowth, clawing at the branches in vain attempts to save himself, to fall finally sprawling on the ground. There was a commotion in the bushes and through the leaves Zhora saw two men running out of an ambush. The third shot cut short the life of one of them. The fourth man managed to escape and disappear beyond the impenetrable mass of tree trunks.

"The swine!" said Bondarchuk, vexed. "He got away . . . I overdid the aiming. What's this? Are you wounded?" she asked hastily, as she saw his grey face and the congealed blood on his shoulder.

"Scratched a bit," muttered Zhora nonchalantly, regaining all his former dash. "Long before my wedding day . . ." he meant to add "it would be healed," but a whining whistle did not let him finish his sentence. A heavy mine fell and burst next to them. A cloud of black smoke rose into the air and stood motionless and solid like a phantom monk, and a moment later, fragments of trees and broken pieces

of stone began falling. Immediately following the explosion, machine-gun fire began spraying the trees like water from a hose.

"Oh-o! They really have taken offence! Come on, step on it!" shouted Sergeant Bondarchuk, and, bending double, she rushed into the plum tree copse. Overcoming the pain throbbing in his injured shoulder, Zhora hurried after her. In the impassable brushwood they stopped and Zhora chanced making an observation: "We are not on the same road, comrade senior sergeant."

"I know we are not. We can't use the other one any more. All of it is under fire. We'll make a detour. Can you walk?"

Zhora answered angrily: "What an idea that Zhora Femelidi is unable to walk because of a silly scratch!"

They scrambled through the thorny thicket for another ten minutes. The prickly blackthorn tore their clothes into shreds, scratched their hands and cut their faces. The undergrowth ended over a ravine.

"Let's go down," said Bondarchuk and, swinging her legs over the edge of the ravine, she slid on her back down the steep slope. Zhora followed her. Below, they picked themselves up and, looking like tramps—their clothes tattered—ran across the bottom of the ravine and dived through a hole in some sort of fence. On the other side of the fence they found themselves in an orchard. A sleepy, golden stillness reigned there which seemed incredible to Zhora after all he went through that day. A little white house was visible through the branches of apple and pear trees, vaguely reminding him of the peace and quiet he knew in the past. Bees buzzed lazily.

Climbing through a hedge of shiny box shrub, Zhora tripped over some branches and fell forward, crashing through the dense wall of foliage with his head. Having recovered from the pain, he rose and saw that he had fallen on the stump of a box shrub. The weight of his body falling on the bush caused it to break and there, before his eyes, an enormous tea rose swayed gently on its broken stem, glistening in the sun like a magic bowl of pinkish-orange porcelain.

He stared at it and quite involuntarily his hand stretched towards it and broke off the damaged stem.

"There, we are out of it now. All is well again," said Sergeant Bondarchuk, looking not at Zhora, but at her bleeding hands, scratched by the thorns. Then, remembering Zhora, she turned to him.

"I must bandage your wound. What are you staring at me like that for?" she asked with a slight grimace, noticing his luminous "bits of anthracite" fixed on her.

Then Zhora did what every Balaclava Greek would have done. Covered in dust as he was, his clothes in rags and stained with blood, he took a step forward.

"Well, it's a funny thing," he said. "Yesterday, there was a misunderstanding between us. Let's finish this business, comrade senior sergeant. Zhora Femelidi is not that sort of a man. Zhora understands everything. Here is my hand—for everlasting friendship." . . .

Sergeant Bondarchuk looked at the lanky young fellow, his countenance radiating loyalty, and a soft light flickered in her blue eyes. She laughed, and clapped her warm little palm into Zhora's outstretched one.

"All right, you'll make a sniper yet!"

"Allow me to present you with this emblem," and Zhora carefully tucked the tea rose into the pocket of the sergeant's blouse. When he straightened himself up again he suddenly felt a humming noise in his head and swayed on his feet. But Sergeant Bondarchuk's hand did not let him fall. He leaned on her and, walking arm in arm, bound by the best of friendships—a friendship born in battle—they set out for their post.

Translated by Nina Busch.

Notes and News (Continued from page 39)

Dickens in Taganrog. Charles Dickens' *A Strange Gentleman* has had its 50th consecutive performance at the recently opened Chekhov Drama Theatre. In Taganrog more than 30,000 people have seen this play. Lectures on Dickens' life and work have been delivered at workers' clubs and at the city's schools, and the Taganrog Library has organised a Dickens exhibition. The theatre recently showed two other English plays: *The Trial Begins* by Priestley and *Mr. Parker's Murder* by Clairville. Bernard Shaw's *Pygmalion* is now in rehearsal, and Shakespeare's *Othello* will shortly be shown.

Garrikk Anniversary Honoured. The 230th anniversary of the birth of David Garrikk was marked in a session of the theatre section of the All-Union Society of Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.

SPORT

Skating. Tatyana Karelina, Soviet woman ice skater, broke by 11.9 seconds the world record in the Norwegian international contests at Hamar, covering 5,000 metres in 9 minutes 16.4 seconds.

Mountaineering. An alpine expedition to Victory Peak, which is 24,409 ft. high and the highest summit of the Tien-Shan Range, will be organised this summer by the U.S.S.R. Physical Culture and Sports Committee.

GENERAL

General Culture. Between 1937 and 1945 4,095,966,000 books and pamphlets were published in all languages in the Soviet Union. In 1944 the libraries of the R.S.F.S.R. loaned over 100 million books to 15 million readers.

Languages Dictionaries. The Oriental Institute of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences is compiling Chinese-Russian, Mongolian - Russian, Arabic - Russian, Japanese-Russian and other dictionaries,

and is preparing for print a symposium *India*.

New Youth Magazines. Two new monthly youth magazines, *The Young Bolshevik*, a popular theoretical journal, and *The Soviet Student*, a social-political-scientific journal, were brought out in April. A monthly journal of children's amateur arts and crafts appeared in May.

Historical Research. The Leningrad Arctic Research Institute is sending an expedition to examine excavations of the old town of Mangazeya beyond the Arctic Circle, in East Siberia, to discover the part Russian mariners played in probing the Northern Sea Route in the first part of the 17th century.

Women. There are 277 women deputies to the Supreme Soviet, over 1,500 women deputies to Supreme Soviets of Union and autonomous Republics, and over 456,000 women members of local Soviets. During the war nearly 1,400 women were given degrees of Doctor of Science and appointments as lecturers or professors by the Higher Education Committee. In addition a considerable number of women received the degree of Candidate of Science direct from Higher Education Institutions.

Kirghizia. The Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic celebrating its twentieth anniversary reported that by 1941 over 460 industrial enterprises, over 1,000 schools, a number of colleges and research institutions and a branch of the Academy of Sciences had been established in this formerly backward area. During the war 30 new big plants and ore mines were built. The next few years will see the construction of mines in the largest deposit of coking coal in Soviet Central Asia, at Uzgen. Between 1946 and 1948, 70 ore mines will be launched at the iron ore deposits of Gava and Tash-Kumyr. By 1950, 160 new schools, four theatres, hundreds of clubs and cinemas and 12 modern hospitals will be opened in the Republic.

SOVIET THEATRE EXHIBITION

22nd JANUARY to 28th FEBRUARY, 1946

By DAME EDITH EVANS

(President, S.C.R. Theatre Section.)

THE Exhibition on the Soviet Theatre which was opened by Mme Gusev, wife of the Soviet Ambassador, on January 22nd in the Dorland Hall, London, was the first of its kind in this country. The idea of holding such an exhibition came from John Burrell, one of our Vice-Presidents and a director of the Old Vic Theatre Company. When discussing how best to launch our Theatre Section he said—"There is so much interest in the Soviet theatre, so many of us want to know more about it—let us give people an opportunity of seeing for themselves Russian stage designs for sets and costumes—and launch our Theatre Section at the same time!"

Our opposite number in Moscow was asked for help. Promptly came their delighted answer and agreement to help as much as they could. True they countered with a *quid pro quo*—they asked for an exhibition in return on *Shakespeare's England*—but that is another story, told elsewhere in this issue.

The Exhibition was planned to convey as comprehensively as possible the work of the contemporary theatre all over the Soviet Union. Models of stage sets, original stage designs for sets and costumes, came from sources as varied as the Moscow Arts Theatre and the State Theatre of Armenia. Many of the exhibits, all of which were specially flown over for the occasion, were taken from museums and had not been out of Russia before.

"The Soviet Theatre is not perfect. It does not do everything better than any other theatre does. But taking both quality and quantity into consideration, it must be judged the best theatre in the world" wrote Mr. J. B. Priestley in his preface to the illustrated catalogue issued for the Exhibition.

Many of the 40,000 people who saw the Exhibition in the Dorland Hall agreed with him. The visitors' book, with many distinguished signatures, shows that. The Press too, though less forthright than Priestley, were also of the opinion that we had something to learn from the organisation of the theatre in the Soviet Union. *The Listener* in an editorial said:

"Even when allowance is made for the size of the U.S.S.R. it is obvious that our own commercialised theatre would do well to take a look at some of the Russian methods—the way, for example, the

Russians run their theatres, the care they take over expenditure on production and administration and, more generally, the good plays they put on and the honoured place they give to the theatre in their national life."

In its six o'clock bulletin on the day of the opening of the Exhibition the B.B.C. commentator said in part: "I consider that this exhibition is the most important artistic advance that I have seen in creative theatre design. . . . I am sure it will come as a stimulus and eye opener to us. You leave the Exhibition feeling that you have seen something which isn't just slick, but real and proud of its reality."

At the other extreme the ladies' column of one paper recommended a visit to the exhibition for those who were considering new colour schemes for interior decoration. Here, they wrote, is an opportunity for getting some original ideas!

Certainly some of the designs left one breathless before the richness of their colouring—the ones for *Sadko* at the Bolshoi Theatre for instance. (The use of canvas for stage designs is interesting too). Others were chaste and austere. The first part of the Exhibition dealt with the approach to the theatre. Here were photographs illustrating the training of actors, amateur dramatic facilities and how the playgoers taste is encouraged and developed. Examples of design in theatre buildings were also shown, including the unique Central Theatre of the Red Army, built in the shape of a five pointed star. Ensembles, the theatre and dramatic work in factory and farm, the adaptation of the theatre to conditions of war and a selection from the vivid school of Soviet puppetry came next. Posters, playbills, and programmes were shown, together with illustrated pamphlets published by the Experimental State Laboratory of the Moscow Art Theatre showing the making of scenery, properties, and effects.

Then came the original designs for settings and costumes by some of the leading Soviet theatre artists. These were in two groups, the first showing work by V. Meller, V. Shestakov, S. Shevaldysheva and N. Medovshikov; the second showed examples from the work of M. Vinogradov, L. Demidova, G. Farmanov, F. Fedorovsky, A. Tyshler, B. Volkov, Peter Williams, V. Dmitriev, S. Vishnevetskaya and N. A. Shifrin.

The next exhibit was a scale model of V. Ryndin's setting for *Innocent but Guilty* by Ostrovsky (Kamerny Theatre, 1945). This model was made specially for the Exhibition from the artist's original design shown on a screen in the next hall.

More designs for stage sets followed, showing examples of the work of V. Khorensky, N. Akimov, V. Ryndin, I. Fedotov, M. Henke, E. Korkina and I. Rabinovitch, and a large selection of drawings from the Museum of Fine Arts of the Armenian Republic. Opposite these were shown photographs of the theatres of various of the Republics. Then came one of the highlights of the Exhibition—the model room. Here were models of *Cinderella*, the new ballet by S. Prokofiev, as staged at the Bolshoi Theatre, Moscow, 1945, with settings by P. V. Williams; *Prince Igor*, Borodin's opera, as staged at the Bolshoi Theatre, Moscow, with settings by F. Fedorovsky; *Twelfth Night*, at the Maly Theatre, Moscow, with settings by V. F. Ryndin; *Taming of the Shrew*, at the Central Theatre of the Red Army, Moscow, with settings by N. A. Shfrin; *The Circle*, by Somerset Maugham, at the Moscow Theatre of Drama with settings by V. Shestakov; *Mowgli*, based on Kipling's stories, and *Christmas Eve*, by Gogol, at the Central Puppet Theatre, Moscow, of which S. Obrastzov is director, with settings respectively by Tuzlukov and Miller.

In the lecture hall a series of 800 photographs showed the work of the Russian and the Soviet theatre, from the 1898 production at the Moscow Arts Theatre of the *Seagull*, right up to the 1944 production of the *Last Sacrifice* by Ostrovsky.

"The most popular English plays in Russia are Shakespeare's," said Madame Gusev at the opening, and this is well borne out by the number of designs for plays by Shakespeare, Sheridan and Somerset Maugham among others. That a dramatization of Kipling's *Mowgli* has been performed for many years may have come as a surprise to some in this country.

The lectures, of which twenty were held during the Exhibition, proved a very great attraction. I feel I must mention those who so kindly took part. They were: Miss Peggy Ashcroft; Mr. Lawrence Collingwood, Musical Director of Sadler's Wells Orchestra; Mr. Franklin Dyall; Mr. Arnold Haskell, critic and lecturer; Miss Valerie Hobson; Miss Dorothy Hyson; Miss Joan Lawson; Mr. Michael Macowan, Drama Director of the Arts Council; Miss Bertha Malnick, Ph.D.; Mr. Herbert Marshall; Miss Mary Merrill; Miss Iris Morley; Mr. Llewellyn Rees, Secretary, Actors' Equity; Mr. P. J. Richardson, Editor, *The Dancing Times*; Miss Ninette de Valois, Director, Sadler's Wells Ballet; Mr. Geoffrey Whitworth, Director, British Drama League; Miss Google Withers.

I had the honour of opening the series

when Miss Ninette de Valois spoke on ballet, as well as chairing on a number of occasions. The patience and fortitude of the people standing crowded in the gangways of the hall during the lectures was most impressive. People queued for the lectures as they did for the film shows of which there were some five showings every day.

Parties from schools, clubs and army training centres came. Some visitors attended every lecture, many came more than once, to see the films and brood over the designs.

Requests for the Exhibition poured in from Art Galleries all over the country. It is at present in Scotland where its success is tremendous. 31,000 people saw it in three weeks in Glasgow, and 5,000 in Aberdeen in twelve days. It is going on to Edinburgh and Dundee.

Of the Soviet theatre as a whole Mr. Priestley, who has so recently returned from a visit to Russia, writes: "More masterpieces of world drama are shown on the Soviet stage—Shakespeare, Calderon, Moliere, Goldoni, Sheridan, Beaumarchais, Ibsen, Strindberg, Hauptman, Shaw, O'Neill and so on—than on the stages of Britain, U.S.A., France, Sweden and any other country you like, all put together. There are plenty of Soviet dramatists and a good yearly crop of new plays. But it is this production, week in and week out, of world masterpieces that is so impressive.

'None of the Soviet theatres is run on a commercial basis for profit. But that does not mean that they are all State theatres. Actually, very few of them are State theatres. Some are backed by local authorities, and many by trade unions and the like. The largest theatre in Moscow is run by the Red Army. A few, like the famous Kamerny Theatre in Moscow, are independent non-profit organisations. . . .

'But they are all alike in certain features. For instance, they are all true repertory theatres, never playing the same play night after night. Again, each theatre has its own company, usually a rather large company, including an orchestra. (Many of them produce operettas as well as straight plays). And the larger theatres not only do everything for themselves—building and painting their own scenery, designing and making their own costumes, and so forth—but also have their own dramatic schools. Most of them perform in their own playhouses from early autumn until summer, and then go on tour for a month or two.'

'The success of the Soviet Theatre is frequently attributed not to Soviet organisation but to some innate histrionic quality in the Russian character. I cannot accept this view. Russians have no more natural talent for the theatre than we have, and there was great drama in England before Russia knew that such a thing existed. No, the difference is that

In Soviet Russia the theatre occupies an honoured place in the community, and the production of plays there is a properly organised communal activity and not as it is here."

The sign of the times is good, however, and I have a strong conviction that it

will not be many years before the awakened interest in the living Theatre, which is so evident in England today, will have been satisfied by the people in charge of theatrical entertainment both that which is sponsored by the government and by private enterprise.

Notes and News (Continued from page 48)

U.S.S.R.. Academy of Sciences this year. Problems to be studied include the higher strata of the atmosphere, cosmic rays, earthquakes, the utilisation of the waters of the Gulf of Kara-Bugaz—the great lagoon on the eastern shore of the Caspian Sea—which are extraordinarily rich in chemicals, and the soils of the Kurile islands, Southern Sakhalin and other Far Eastern areas.

Electronic Microscope. The experimental shops of the State Optics Institute in Leningrad are turning out the first batch of electronic microscopes which give a magnification of 25,000 diameters. It is small in size, easily operated and is fitted with a device making possible three-dimensional photography.

Soda Industry Research. A national scientific research institute of the soda industry—the first in the Soviet Union and the world—has been established in Kharkov.

New Thermometer. A new platinum resistance thermometer, for precision-measurement of temperatures ranging between 183 degrees below and 660 above zero, has been completed by the Institute of Physical Problems of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences and the Moscow State Research Institute of Measurements and Measuring Instruments.

Coal. In the Eastern coal districts, 300 million rubles will be spent on new scientific research institutions.

Water Power Experimental Station. In the Karelian Isthmus the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. is setting up the world's largest experimental hydrological station.

Preserving Food. A big helioboiler—in which the heat is provided by the rays of the sun—has been tested at a Tashkent cannery. A steam pressure of two atmospheres was obtained within 30 minutes, which is sufficient to supply power for the production of canned goods. The solar energy used in the helioboiler is concentrated by means of a paraboloid mirror ten metres in diameter. The rays converging in focus produce a temperature of 1,500 degrees, and heat the water in the boiler with natural circulation. A helioboiler has been designed for a pressure of ten atmospheres, and can produce about 176 lbs. of steam per hour.

GEOGRAPHY

At the Source of the Yenisei. Mount

Khelizar-Dubkhu-Ula, 3,519 metres high, the highest peak in the Eastern Sayan Range has been charted.

New Peak. Topographers in Turkmenistan have discovered a new peak 24,800 feet high in the Kok Shall Tru mountain ridge of Central Tienshan. It is the second highest mountain in the Soviet Union.

HEALTH

For Miners. Workers of the Ukrainian Institute of Labour Hygiene have constructed the first "photarium" in the U.S.S.R., an installation for giving ultra-violet rays to mine workers. The photarium is a narrow passage with conveyor belt running along it and powerful ultra-violet lamps installed at its sides. Workers step on to the belt which slowly moves between the lamps. Experience has shown that a daily dose of several minutes has very beneficial results.

Attack on Malaria. Incidence of malaria in the Soviet Union is to be halved in the next five years, according to a plan of new measures worked out by the public health authorities. Anti-malaria stations are to be set up in all infected districts. Acrikhin, plasmocide and other remedies will be manufactured in big quantities, and chemical factories have been instructed to produce a great amount of "D.D.T.". In 1950 the authorities expect to be able to dust-spray from the air over 12 million acres of swamps, and 1,200,000 acres will be oil-sprayed or dusted from the ground. A water area of a quarter million acres will be stocked with gambusia—killer of the anopheles larva.

BRITAIN IN U.S.S.R.

Shakespeare Conference. The 8th annual Shakespeare conference was held in Moscow. Shakespeare plays are staged by 200 Soviet theatres.

Shakespeare in Byelorussia. The Yanka Kupala Byelorussian drama theatre has staged Romeo and Juliet—the first Shakespeare play to be performed in the Byelorussian language.

Plays Adapted from Dickens. A play adapted from Dickens' *Our Mutual Friend* and another from *The Cricket on the Hearth* have been produced in Moscow, while *Pickwick Papers* is still running at the Moscow Art Theatre.

(Continued on page 36)

BOOK REVIEWS

School Geographical Atlas for the Third and Fourth Classes. In Moscow, 1938.
Handbook for above. Moscow, 1939.

THE handbook is extremely interesting. It gives a short account of the development of ideas—as they relate to geography—of what was considered at three periods necessary for inclusion in such an atlas for the lower school, the three periods being the pre-revolutionary period, the Soviet period up to 1931 and the post-1931 Soviet period. This leads up to a short account of how the present atlas came to be produced following the recommendations of a committee of experts, school teachers, professors, cartographers and artists. The fundamental principles underlying the selection and treatment of maps are indicated together with methods recommended for classroom use.

Then follows what is certainly the most striking section in the volume, a series of acute criticisms of the defects of the atlas and requests for answers from teachers who use the atlas, to specific questions about advisable alterations and improvements.

The maps shown in the atlas are those one might expect to find, the majority dealing with the U.S.S.R., this of course by its very extent introducing a good deal of world geography, the only others being two pairs of world maps in hemispheres, one showing political the other vegetation divisions, together with one of Arctic lands and one of Magellan's voyages.

The outstanding feature of the atlas is, however, the coloured pictures. One series of 21 (4½ cm x 2½ cm) with maps of the same size to correspond is most instructive and delightful; each of a pair throws much light on the other, whether it is a railway, a street, a bridge across a stream, a wood or cultivated land. Perhaps the most important lesson learned from these maps and pictures is that a map misses out a very great deal that a picture shows. Then there are some pairs of larger maps and pictures to show correspondences over larger areas. Perhaps, however, two other series of coloured pictures would make even more appeal to British teachers. In one of these series the centre of a double page of the atlas is filled by a map of the world in hemispheres while round them on the right are arranged, from the Arctic to Antarctic, nine pictures of nine typical areas in the northern summer the exact location being given on the eastern hemisphere map. Similarly are arranged eight pictures of corresponding places in the Americas in the northern winter located

on the western hemisphere map. This is one of the simplest, clearest and most artistic pieces of work that the reviewer has ever seen. The other series is on a somewhat similar plan of typical regions, roughly from north to south, in the U.S.S.R. identified by name though not on a map.

Altogether this is a remarkable production for schools, especially when issued in an edition of 300,000.

J. FAIRGRIEVE.

Soviet Russia. An Introduction. By Kathleen Gibberd. Royal Institute of International Affairs. 5s. 0d.

THIS booklet, written in a simple, bright, popular style, might have formed a valuable contribution towards the study of the structure of the Soviet Union and the principles upon which it is based.

Unfortunately it is marred by a number of misstatements which are probably themselves largely the result of the author's misconceptions of the underlying principles of the Soviet system and her conscious or unconscious hostility to that system.

The present booklet is a revised and enlarged edition of the author's pamphlet on the same subject published in 1942. Some of the more gross errors of that pamphlet have been omitted or modified and it is a thousand pities that the author did not see fit or could not carry out a much more thorough revision.

In the short space at our disposal we can only point out a few of the misstatements and misjudgments to which a student of Russian and Soviet affairs cannot but take exception.

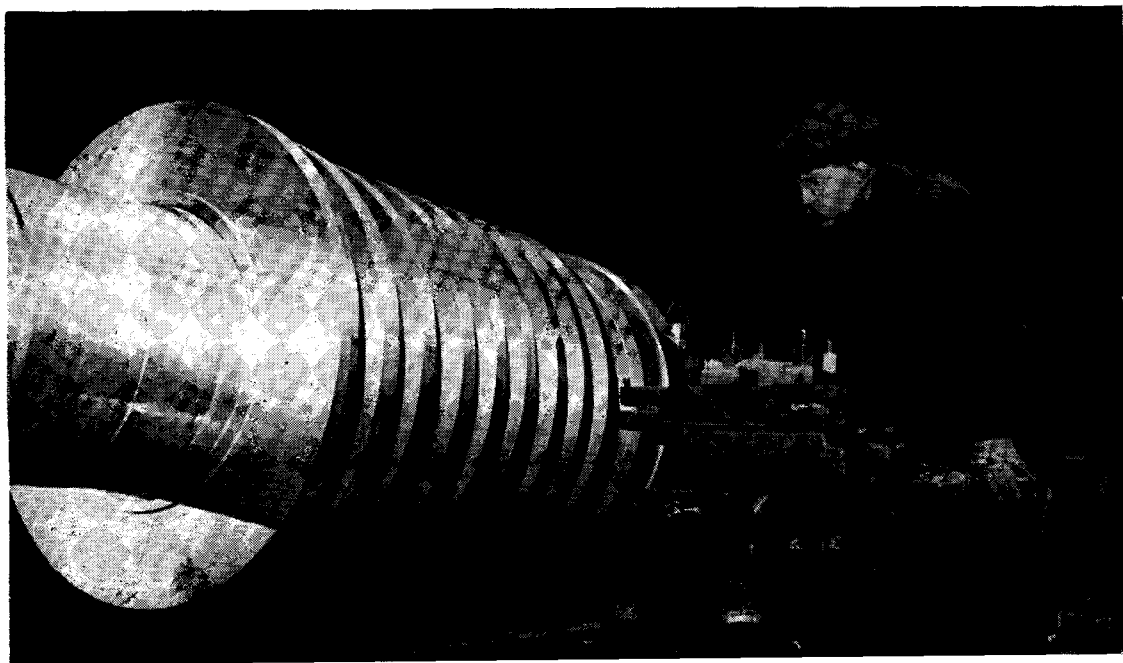
First, a couple of theoretical questions. The author finds a similarity in the objects and methods of Peter the Great and the Bolsheviks—that is absurd. Peter the Great sought to westernise Russia and to make her a great State, but whilst his reforms added to the wealth and power of the landowning and rising merchant classes, the conditions of life of the peasants—the serfs, remained as miserable and poverty-stricken if indeed not more so, as they had ever been. The exploited classes continued to be exploited—the Bolsheviks on the other hand, whilst encouraging modern science and technique, have done away with all exploitation of man by man.

Again, throughout the author draws a wholly unjustified distinction between the Lenin and Marxian methods. Marx never taught that "the wage-earners would at some future date be forced to rise in



The Saratov-Moscow gas pipe line will ease the lives of thousands of workers.
Testing measuring instruments needed for construction.

A worker in the Stalin engineering works in Leningrad turning the rotor for a
high-pressure steam turbine of 100,000 k.w.





Dame Edith Evans introduces Madame Gousev to open the exhibition. On the left D. N. Pritt, the Chairman of the S.C.R.

SOVIET THEATRE EXHIBITION

The Soviet Theatre Exhibition at Dorland Hall, London. Around the exhibits.



revolution against the Capitalists", without conscious direction by those who understood the process of economic and historic development.

A good deal of Marx's life was devoted to spreading such knowledge and to the education of leaders of the working class. Lenin adopted and developed the Marxian method and applied it to the given circumstances and there is no contradiction between Marxian theory and Leninist practice.

The 1936 Constitution was not adopted because of the growing complexity of government, but was rather an expression of the economic and cultural progress of the U.S.S.R. The Constitution reflects the complete elimination of private ownership in the means of production and exchange and the rise in the political consciousness and cultural level of the peasants as well as the rise of a loyal Soviet intelligentsia.

Now for a few factual questions. Describing the scenes before the revolution in the cities of the Central Asiatic Republics including "the ever-present oriental beggar displaying his sores and deformities," the author, although stating that "all this is changing under Soviet rule" and herself pointing out some of the changes, nevertheless declares that "the spectacle is probably still much the same."

How the spectacle can remain much the same with the abolition of the exploitation of the masses of the Asiatic peoples, the opening of schools, colleges, clubs, hospitals, theatres and cinemas, the clearing up of the bazaars, the unveiling of the women, etc., is surely rather a riddle. And in this connection we might observe that the author's statement that: "It must be reckoned as one of the Party's great achievements that the Union has held together and that a kind of invisible grid carries the power of the regime from Moscow to Ukraine, Uzbekistan, and even the Soviet Far East," hardly does justice to the results of the Soviet system.

Communist Party propaganda was and is certainly important, but the "invisible grid" is in reality the very *tangible result* of the establishment by the Soviets of complete equality among the numerous nationalities of the U.S.S.R.—propaganda alone would never have achieved the whole-hearted unity they displayed in the conduct of the war for instance.

Describing the early days after the revolution, the author states that civil war and the war of intervention followed "the sudden murder of the Tsar and his family." Actually, of course, the execution (and it was an execution rather than murder) of the Tsar and his family took place in July 1918 after the civil war and foreign intervention was, in some cases already in full swing and in others well on the way.

The author repeats the fairy tales spread at the time about the "failure" of the Soviet army in the early part of the Soviet-Finnish war of 1939-40. A study of that campaign in fact shows the

masterly way in which it was conducted in general (in spite of some understandable initial mistakes). As for the general estimate that "when Russia was suddenly attacked by Germany in June 1941, the general opinion was that the Red Army would succumb"—this was due not to any mystery about Soviet military and economic strength, but simply to the unwillingness of many "experts" to face the facts—here the wish was very much father to the thought.

It is altogether untrue that all peasants who "had most successfully weathered the recent years of bewilderment and difficulty" were treated as Kulaks and prevented from joining the Kolkhozy. Only those peasants were treated as dangerous to the State who deliberately sabotaged the organisation of the collective farms and who engaged in counter-revolutionary propaganda and acts of diversion. Entry into the Kolkhozy was voluntary, and where local officials exceeded their instructions and used compulsion, they were removed from their posts. Even to this day there are some peasants who work their own private farms, but they are not allowed to hire outside labour and do not share in a number of privileges granted the Kolkhozy.

There are some curious expressions in regard to the position of the churches. For instance on p. 97 we are told: "It is not yet clear what is to be the status of the Roman Catholics and the various nonconformist sects who had their place in the old regime but whose leaders were sent to Siberia or obliged to flee the country."

This implies the persecution of church leaders simply as such, whereas the truth is that no church leader, whether Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Jewish or other persuasion, was prosecuted for his beliefs but only when he engaged in counter-revolutionary activities against the State.

On the same page the author declares: "It would, indeed, be hardly unfair to say that the same inertia which prevented the former rulers of Russia from fulfilling their responsibilities towards the Russian people was found in the Russian church."

Is this naive? Surely the author must know that it was not inertia "which prevented the former rulers of Russia from fulfilling their responsibilities towards the Russian people," but the sheerest defence of their own narrow class interests. And the church, alas, was always on the side of autocracy and the money bags against the interests of the masses of the people.

There are a number of minor errors, for instance: Social insurance is administered by the Trade Unions, but it is not true, as stated on p. 90 that "it is by virtue of his trade union membership that the worker acquires his right to help from them." All workers, whether members of Trade Unions or not, are covered by social insurance. Women now (since July 1944)

have at least 35 days leave of absence before childbirth and 42 days after, not "at least one month" before and after confinement.

Tiflis, the capital of Georgia, has been renamed Tbilisi.

The very short discussions of the nature of the Supreme Soviet, Soviet democracy, the State Trials, the G.P.U., Soviet foreign policy, Soviet-Polish relations, and Soviet-British relations, all manifest either a lack of understanding of the actual facts or a definite anti-Soviet bias which is all the more regrettable and dangerous from the point of view of giving an accurate picture of the U.S.S.R., in that it is interspersed with many accurate and seemingly impartial statements.

ZELDA K. COATES.

The Russians and Their Church. By Dr. Nicolas Zernov. (S.P.C.K., 7s. 6d.).

Dr. Zernov, whose *Three Russian Prophets* we reviewed in the last issue of the *Anglo-Soviet Journal*, has now written a history of the Russian Church. This is a subject of great interest and importance, but Dr. Zernov, though a considerable scholar and completely absorbed by his subject, sees his country's history from the point of view of an *émigré* Theologian who has been absent from Russia for many years, and for whom everything that has happened since 1917 (if not from the days of Peter the Great!) is simply unmitigated disaster. He therefore views the past through a haze of pure romanticism, completely idealising the Russian ecclesiastical scene, and his distortions and omissions are likely to give an entirely false picture to anyone unacquainted with the facts.

His history brings out very well, however, the indissoluble unity of secular and religious history in Russia, and shows how utterly misleading it would be either to leave religion out of the picture or to treat it as always a reactionary force, a blinding mist of superstition and corruption, merely hampering the advance of Russian civilisation.

But Zernov's exciting and romantic picture goes much too far in the opposite direction. He slurs over the real evils of the Church, its opposition to education, its ruinous subservience to the Tsarist State at its worst, its tolerance of serfdom and exploitation, even the baleful influence of Rasputin, evils which led Professor Macmurray to write, "After reading a plain objective and not unsympathetic account of Russian religion, I can only come to one conclusion, and it is a conclusion that all true friends of religion will share—nearly all that religion has been, and has meant, in Russia ought to perish for ever from the face of the earth and the memory of men."

On the other side Dr. Zernov omits all reference to those reforming monks and

priests like Abbot Nil of Sorok, Tikhovinsky, Petrov and Tsvetkov, who protested against such things as the Church possessing land and serfs, or the use of the confessional for spying. He says nothing at all about the notable nonconformist movements in Russia, often somewhat communist in outlook, like the English "Diggers" of Cromwell's time, in spite of the fact that they numbered some 13,000,000 at the time of the revolution. His account of the Great Schism under the Patriarch Nikon in 1666 is an interesting case of how he can distort history. The Patriarch had insisted on the Russian Church conforming in certain minor points of ritual with the old Greek tradition. He won the day, but was deposed, while millions of outraged Christians participated in a mass movement of dissent from the Church—these were the Old Believers.

Dr. Zernov fails to tell us on the one hand that the popular protest was as much against the ever-increasing taxation of the Church members by the Episcopacy and the progressive degradation of the people in servitude; nor, on the other hand, does he explain that Nikon was deposed because he fought for the independence of the Church from the State and thus fell foul of the Tsar.

Dr. Zernov is chiefly concerned with ritual, the mysticism of worship, and the kind of sanctity shown, not by any zeal for righteousness, but by asceticism and the working of miracles. The simple credulity with which he recounts the miracles of the early Saints and his uncritical acceptance of ecclesiastical legend reminds one of Newman's famous life of a British Saint, about whom practically nothing was known, which ended with these words: "And this is all, and more than all, that is known of the blessed Saint Neot."

When he comes to more recent events, this carelessness for truth becomes even less excusable. To give but three examples: The Patriarch Tikhon's excommunication of the Bolsheviks and their supporters in 1918 becomes merely the excommunication of "those who attacked Christians and profaned Church buildings." This is sheer dishonesty. Then he declares without a shred of evidence that the Bolsheviks "Systematically destroyed national monuments." Thirdly he fails to indicate any of the particular *social* and *political* (not religious) issues which led to many Churchmen getting into trouble with the Soviet Government (i.e. confiscation of Church treasures for the famine), and tries to make out that since 1918 there has been continuous and ferocious persecution of Christianity as such. He concludes by pointing to its survival as a clear case of a miracle. It might be so indeed, but it happens to be true that the Church as such has always retained its freedom under the Soviet Government, that the churches have never been closed, that the Nonconformists who

really were persecuted under the Tsar have now greatly increased. The Church owes its existence, not to supernatural protection during the flames of a Neronian persecution, but to the undeviating tolerance of the Soviet State.

JOHN LEWIS.

A Window in Moscow. Alaric Jacob.
(Colins, 15s. net.)

Russia in Perspective. George Soloveytkhik.
(Macdonald, 5s. net.)

ALARIC JACOB'S window was certainly kept clean, free from the dirt of prejudice, the smears of disappointed vanity and the blotches of condescension. Looking through that window he saw with clarity the reason for things, saw into the mind and the heart of the Russian people. Looking thus he understood that twenty-five years even without a war is so little time in which to industrialise and civilise a vast country of over a hundred nationalities whose development ranged from the skill and scholarship, art and learning found in St. Petersburg to tribes carrying on devil worship.

In the valuable second chapter he deals one by one with the current misconceptions about the U.S.S.R., the throwing over of Marxism, the growth of nationalism, the rise of privileged classes, the inferiority of Russian goods, the low standard of living, etc., etc. Marxism forgotten? "I think not." He finds it a pleasure to be in a country "where no one talks about socialism any more . . . because everybody takes socialism for granted, like free air." He rightly points out that no one in Russia considers the present stage anything but a step on the way to communism. Nationalism? There is no incompatibility between socialism and patriotism. "Socialism actually induces love of country. A Russian who feels his country belongs to him will naturally be more patriotic in its defence than if he feels it belongs to an exploiting class." Privilege? Yes as a reward for services rendered to the community. "It is not inherited nor can it be bought for money." "There is no social envy in the Soviet Union."

Looking with the eyes of Alaric Jacob, the low standard of living which shocks the middle-class visitor is seen in its proper perspective, as the price for national and economic security and a rising standard for the whole people in the reasonably near future.

The author has perceived the spiritual significance of a Five Year Plan. Like a beautiful picture or a perfect scientific experiment, it fulfils its function and creates the conditions for the flowering of man's creative genius, of those finer qualities possessed by all men. In the end a harmony is produced between the individual and the community. Each is

enriched by the other.

There is a memorable pen picture of Leningrad during the siege and the description of some of the war campaigns is very useful. An etching of Stalin (p. 151) should clear away many cobwebs. But he is no uncritical observer. Understanding the Russian, chapter 5, *Russkie Ludi*, is one of the best things we've read—he does not gloss over faults and failings, particularly where it relates to relations with correspondents or visitors. It is a valuable contribution to mutual understanding.

Alaric Jacob might have been replying to George Soloveytkhik. Somewhere it has been said that history is the art of selection. Mr. Soloveytkhik has that art developed to a high degree. He sets out ostensibly to correct the impression that the whole of Russia was primitive, barbaric, impoverished throughout its history. This is a task that requires doing, for the world should know of the greatness of Kiev Russ of the tenth and eleventh centuries, of early Russia's relations with western Europe and of her links through marriage with many of the kingdoms including England. It should be made known too that there was learning and literature, art and science of a high order in the 19th century. But Mr. Soloveytkhik fulfils this task a little too well. The reader with insight will soon realise that what the author has set out to do is to belittle the Soviets and to deny it any achievement. All that has taken place in the Soviet Union—of course it is not really much—is due to the Russian character—Soviet ideology, with its planned economy has had no part in this achievement. The author even wonders whether it has not hindered the development of Russia. With the Revolution finished 28 years ago Russia is back in her old habits and old ways, argues Mr. Soloveytkhik. Naturally the author, a white emigré, has not visited the Soviet Union since he left after the revolution. But that is no hindrance to the kind of history Mr. Soloveytkhik writes. In support of his thesis he quotes another white emigré and bitter opponent of the Soviets, Paul Millukov.

By the end of chapter VI—pre-revolution history—the reader is left wondering why did there have to be a revolution? According to the author between 1861 and 1914 Russia was forging ahead economically and culturally; under Nicholas II "the nation received a modern parliament." In the 19th century "it was possible under the absolutist Russian monarchy openly to engage in such political and other activities which were frankly antagonistic to the regime." It is to be presumed then that the humanist, Chernyshevsky, and a host of others imprisoned themselves. Presumably too Lenin and a host of others exiled themselves abroad, they liked living abroad in poverty, and scientists like Sechenov dismissed themselves from their

professorships. Pushkin and Lermantov too exiled themselves. This is worse than special pleading.

Mr. Soloveytchik does not trust Soviet statistics, but he has no hesitation in accepting tsarist statistics when he wants to prove how much freer was the tsarist regime than the Soviet regime.

The position of the peasants which became progressively worse receives little space from the author. Of the peasant risings only that led by Stenka Razin is mentioned; not a word about the rebellion led by Bolotnikov in 1606-1607, by Bulavin in 1707 or that by Pugachev which lasted from 1773-1775 in the great Catherine's reign. Similarly there is no mention of the waves of strikes, or the burning and pillage of estates by the peasants in revolt against intolerably harsh conditions under Nicholas II.

If the Soviets have made no difference to Russia to what is the "final fiasco in 1916" due and to what the final triumph in 1945? Why did not Russia go on progressing and avoid a Revolution so late in its history? It is a very great pity that the author allows his anti-Soviet prejudice so to warp his judgment that he ignores the great Soviet achievements in education, in agriculture, in the treatment of nationalities and in its planned economy. For some of the chapters, particularly those dealing with early Russia, written with a stimulating vividness, are a real contribution to knowledge of Russia. In fact whenever the prejudices of others make him forget his own, the author shows much good sense. Unfortunately he cannot accept the Soviet regime—sad for him, because some 200 million people have accepted it, and quite a few nations today look on it with favour.

BEATRICE KING.

Tchaikovsky: A Symposium. Edited by Gerald Abraham.

IN his preface to this symposium the editor explains: "The volume is planned to cover the whole of its subject's output, or at any rate all of it that matters, and the omission of a long biographical section has made possible much more thorough and detailed discussion of the music than would otherwise be the case in a book of this size. At the same time the reader who wishes to know something about the man who wrote the music discussed, something about the course of his life—or to refresh his memory on those points—will find at the beginning a character-study from the purely human point of view, and near the end a chronological table."

This description of the book gives a clear idea of its plan, and brings out its many good points. It also unwittingly betrays a fundamental weakness. The character-study of the composer is to be from "the purely human point of view."

This in the mind of the writer of this particular chapter evidently means merely Tchaikovsky's relationships with his family and personal entourage, not even with his professional colleagues, let alone his social outlook or reactions to the conditions of life in 19th-century Russia. A reference is made to him as "presenting a picture of the perfect bourgeois gentleman," but there is no hint that this exemplary social facade and its possible underlying reactions against the bourgeois world-outlook can be of any interest in understanding his music, which, it is averred, is that of a "warped neurotic, shy and tortured." There have been a certain proportion of such "warped neurotics" among the inhabitants of every country in the world, probably, ever since class society superseded primitive tribal communism, but not all of them have composed music, and not a single one of them composed it in the idiom and with the peculiar range of expressiveness of Tchaikovsky. So that this character-study from the purely human—or as it turns out, purely Freudian—point of view, does not get us very far.

Apart from this shallow approach to the basic problem of a composer's style and achievements, the book can be thoroughly recommended. Some chapters are excellent, notably the editor's own contribution on the Operas and Incidental Music, and Professor Alshvang's analysis on the Songs. Not only are these valuable critical appreciations of the works in question, but they bring into prominence Tchaikovsky's achievements in fields where he is usually underestimated if not ignored. Yet having seen two of his operas in the U.S.S.R. it has been my opinion that he, together with Verdi and Bizet, form a group of the outstanding operatic composers of the 19th century. His best songs, almost unknown here, are, I consider, extraordinarily fine, and Professor Alshvang's article treats them most interestingly.

The chapters on the miscellaneous orchestral works and the chamber music bring little known but valuable works to the readers' notice, and at the other end of the scale, Mr. Eric Blom writes penetratingly on the B flat minor Pianoforte Concerto. Perhaps the least useful chapter is on the piano music, which is perfunctorily catalogued and unsympathetically dismissed, the products of the writer's analysis being described as "a document in weeds rather than flowers to hand on to future gardeners."

On reading the whole book one is struck by the extent of "Russianness" in Tchaikovsky's musical thought, and puzzled by his antagonism to the "Mogouchaya Koucha", and theirs too him. The reason for this mutual antagonism—and some deep-rooted cause there must have been—is left unexplained in the book, indeed the problem is apparently not seen. No doubt this is because it is bound up with the clash of ideologies that

BOOK REVIEWS

is left outside the scope of this book's analysis.

* The group of eminent composers of the time.

ALAN BUSH.

Just Love. By Wanda Wassilewska.
(Hutchinson International Authors:
7s. 6d.)

No Easy Victories. By S. Golubov.
(Hutchinson International Authors:
7s. 6d.)

WANDA WASSILEWSKA'S zest for life, her hunger for its variegated experience, spills over in sheer exuberance. Her latest book *Just Love* is better written than *The Rainbow* and in my opinion more closely reflects her personality. When recently I was in Poland an old friend of the author described her to me as the most vital woman he had ever known.

"She is a flame," he said, "reaching to a heaven of enthusiasm, glowing to a red heat of effort, quivering with emotional fervour, doused by sudden cold quenches of despair that break up in a dazzling flash of feeling so intense, that it leaves her more pedestrian friends and followers breathless and a little shaken. Love and politics are the motive forces of this amazing creature. Illumined by her passion, her first husband, a simple worthy fellow, appeared as a transcendental being on whom she lavished all her gifts of sex and sensibility, with a keen political prescience thrown in. But in spite of all this grooming he just remained a good rank-and-filer while she—after his death—became a fairly considerable power in the counsel of the Left. A moving speaker, a clever pamphleteer, she was the rising hope of the revolutionary Party in a campaign against the dreary, dreadful Fascism of the Polish governing class. Arrived in the U.S.S.R. after the Germans entered Poland, she met the Ukrainian author Korneichuk whom she married and with her daughter became a Russian. . . . She should go far," he added "politically—and emotionally—she is a genius."

It is the emotional side that inspires *Just Love* which concerns Maria, emotional victim of a war. Her husband is at the fighting front, while she is training as a nurse in a Moscow hospital. She lives for the day when, the War over, he will come back to her, unceasingly dwelling on the moments of ecstasy of their early married life.

Efficient but in a day dream of emotion she performs her hospital duties mechanically, accepting without question the hopeless devotion of the young surgeon, her Chief, of whose attentions Maria's mother severely disapproved. The sketch of the old woman is admirable; a universal type, she is tireless of all countries. It was the surgeon's custom,

whenever possible, to see Maria from the hospital to her home. Directly the door opens you realise the domestic atmosphere.

"Maria's mother was obviously not pleased to see the guest. She gave no answer to the greetings and went off to the kitchen."

"Mama, see that the tea is hot!'"

"If you want it hot you should come home earlier: I have been boiling the kettle and boiling it, and taking it off and boiling it again. . . ." No, she most decidedly did not like these visits. This doctor was putting in an appearance far too often."

Maria's bemused existence is roughly shaken. Grisha is severely wounded—worse he has lost an arm and a leg. Worse still he is horribly mutilated. At this point the emotional surge which has swept the story over rocky passages of unconvincing male psychology—Wassilewska's men have all an effeminate streak—becomes bogged by sentimentalism. Like the heroes of the Hollywood films which have lately flooded our cinemas, Grisha decides he will shed his identity and hide his name and disfigurement from his world, i.e., his young wife.

Meanwhile Maria, helped by the infatuated surgeon, flies to Grisha and flushed with ecstatic regurgitation stands by her hero's bedside to feel slowly, inevitably a cold nausea of intense loathing against the mutilated log that was her husband. She cannot look at him, the thought of touching him in the most casual and impersonal fashion shakes her with repulsion.

Maria's reaction is intensely dramatic, but the crisis over, the author falls into further sentimentalism. Not by the difficult method of facing facts and assessing values, the recognition that companionship of the spirit and mind may gradually balance the loss of physical attraction, but by the induction of spurious sentiment Maria dopes herself into a mirage of warmth and in a fantasy of the past takes up life with Grisha.

Wanda Wassilewska has nearly written a fine book. I should say that the leaping flame of her own personality somewhat obscured her creative vision.

There is the same vitality of style and vividness of interest in Golubov's *No Easy Victories*, a novel dealing with General Bagration and the campaign against Napoleon in 1812. Large canvasses are very popular with Soviet writers and the author combines the gift of epic presentation with a mastery of detail. Thus, against the background of military events, individual characters are painted in a high light, while the narrative is as urgent as though it were dealing with contemporary history, and so swift in action that the reader is held throughout.

Bagration emerges with all the resilience and national fervour of Chapayev. You are with him through all the battling intrigues of his rivals, you share his

mental agonies, his emotional stress and are deeply conscious of the man's burning patriotism. The dark atmosphere of plot and counter-plot which clings round this particular period of history, the Tsar's crass vanity and favouritism which thwarted military genius for the sake of venal incompetence, strikes one as a prophetic forecast of the corruption in the Court of Nicholas II during the 1914-18 war, while the military strategy of the great Kutuzov shows the Russian gift for winning victories under the most adverse conditions.

The Siege of Smolensk is re-staged with dramatic fervour and the Battle of Borodino, the turning point of the Napoleonic campaign is as exciting as any war dispatch of the last few years.

Kutuzov by contrast appears a shabby sort of fellow . . . as described by a prisoner of war, "a stoutish old soldier wearing a grey, travel stained greatcoat over a green infantry tunic with no epaulettes or sash. His grey hair was covered by a white, peakless cap with red piping. His face. . . Why, faces like that, at once ingenuous and sly, benevolent and stern, could be seen all over Russia! He had only one eye, the other had evidently been knocked out by a bullet. Not at all an impressive figure. He looked no more distinguished than a Corporal."

Bagration is killed at Borodino, dying exultant in Russia's triumph. In death, as in life, the author captures our admiration for his hero, who re-minted in the crucible of genius is hallmarked with that passion, sacrifice and service which is Russia.

E. CHESTERTON.

Before the Shadows Fell. By Evgeny Ryls. Hutchinson.

BEFORE THE SHADOWS FELL tells how the workers in an industrial town formed a workers' battalion and held off the Nazi attack while the Red Army units in retreat were reformed. The story is told by a fifteen-year-old boy who is awakened by events to a realisation of the responsibility which falls on each individual member of the defending force, and the way in which inescapable necessities, both physical and moral, shatter the patterns of everyday behaviour. In so far as the book succeeds in conveying the weight of these inescapable necessities, it adds to our understanding of the effects of the war on the Russian people. But the great novel which will sometime in the future express this aspect of the war will avoid the too frequent use of the overheard conversation to summarise stages or forms

of change, and will be more fully concerned with the interplay of character and event.

The present work has at its main interest the fact that it is doubtless representative of the many preliminary attempts to convey the harshness with which events fall upon character in times of critical decision; it fails to reach full conviction because the people in the book are not people, but deliberately fashioned symbols of uncounted thousands. The human results of the Nazi invasion are too overwhelmingly horrible to be described yet while memories are so fresh; and the use of the novel form as exemplified in this book will probably be considerably modified before a rightly expressive method of selection and understatement is found. For two opposites will have to meet and fuse; the facts which made the horror will have to be factually and simply described in such a way that the reader will feel the horror and himself become in imagination a hero; and the overwhelming idea which made possible the political morale of the Russian people will have to be expressed in a way which convincingly accounts for the heroism it helped to engender, and the way in which it reinforced the courage of ordinary individuals.

Is this a plea for use (in a different tradition of development where it might be alien and illegitimate) of the humanistic tradition of the Western novel? This is a question difficult to answer while so little is available in this country of Russian reviews and criticisms of their own authors, and foreign writers such as Priestley; for the typical characters of Ryls may convey to his readers at home the same kind of reality as we find reflected in the development of character in novels of the Western classic tradition. And in time of course, this is only a single aspect of the ready interest which is so consistently frustrated by misinformation and lack of information about what kind of people live in the U.S.S.R. It is a fact of the greatest potential danger that, to many of the best-intentioned people in this country, reality seems to end at the Soviet frontier. There is surely sufficient understanding here that Socialist culture is different from ours; but we need the common understanding of people which would make the understanding of the nature of the differences between our cultures attainable. One feels at the moment that both peoples are crying across the frontiers that they have hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions; and if we have not always the same food, we have been recently much hurt by the same weapons.

J. MILLER.

NOTES AND NEWS

POINTS FROM THE FOURTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN

Welfare Services. In the R.S.F.S.R. by 1950, 450 schools, 400 hospitals, over 800 child welfare institutions, over 1,000 buildings for municipal social and cultural services will have been constructed.

Irrigation. By the end of the new Five-Year Plan the irrigated area in the Soviet Union will be increased by 1,640,000 acres and the area of drained marshland by 1,500,000 acres; 66 large irrigation projects are under construction. One of the largest in the world, the Mingechaury reservoir in the Soviet Azerbaijan Republic, will irrigate 1,500,000 acres of new land. As a result there will be a big increase in the yield of cotton, grain, fruit and grapes. In Georgia, an irrigation project will be completed in the Alazan Valley. The aggregate length of irrigation canals in Armenia will reach about two thousand kilometres.

Several reservoirs are under construction in the Uzbek Republic. Completion of a canal with water reservoirs on the Angren River will permit the irrigation of many tens of thousands more acres of land in the Tashkent, Samarkand and Namangan Regions. The construction of the Northern Tashkent Canal, the Syushambinka-Kara Tau Canal, the Sary-Kurgan dam and other projects continues. Still other projects are to be carried out in Kirghizia, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenia.

Footwear. Four times as many boots and shoes will be produced in the U.S.S.R. in 1950 as in 1945.

Glass Fibre and Coloured Cotton. Over 60 factories producing fabrics from glass fibre and naturally coloured cotton with an annual output of over 20,000,000 metres will be built in the R.S.F.S.R., the Ukraine and Central Asia between 1947 and 1953.

PRODUCTION CONSUMER GOODS

More Silks. The production of silk fabrics is to be increased this year by 500%. Twenty-six restored and newly built silk mills and rayon factories will be launched.

Rayon Fabrics. Soviet rayon factories are beginning to use a new installation which automatically produces knitted rayon fabrics from the chemical material. The fluid mass of raw material enters the receiver, undergoes a complicated process of transformation into thread and then into yarn, and finally leaves the other end of the machine as knitted fabric.

Radio Sets. Soviet factories will produce over 300,000 radio sets this year.

Art Silk Stockings. Enough artificial silk for 2,400 pairs of stockings can be produced in 24 hours by a new machine which is now being assembled at the Moscow "August 1st" factory. This one machine replaces five machines required by the usual process. Called the "Textile Combine", the new machine spins, processes, dries, and rolls the silk thread.

Food. The Soviet meat and dairy industry this year will supply the population with 40 per cent more high-grade goods than last year. In 1947 the total output of meat and dairy produce will exceed the 1940 level. Four restored meat-packing plants, 20 oil-mills and 36 refrigerator plants will be launched in the coming summer and autumn. Two new big meat-packing plants, each processing 200,000 tons of meat annually, will start operations soon in Central Asia and Western Siberia.

Automatic Control of Quality of Machine Parts. A group of engineers of the All-Union Automatics and Tele-Mechanics Research Institute designed 28 devices which make possible precise control of the quality of manufactured parts. Sensitive photo-elements signalise in every instance when the production process is impeded and automatically switch on a device repairing the damage. The completed details are checked by a special device and delivered by a conveyor belt to the assembly shop. The majority of these new devices have successfully passed their tests and will soon be manufactured by Soviet factories.

Building Materials. One hundred and thirty-four enterprises for the manufacture of building materials will be put into operation this year by the People's Ministry of Housing.

New Kind of Non-Flam Film. A new material for non-inflammable film, able to withstand a temperature of 1,000 degrees centigrade as well as being waterproof, can now be manufactured in the Soviet Union. This material, bonzonite, is an electric insulator, and is made extremely strong by the admixture of silk or cotton combings.

Reconversion. A hundred and fifty big factories which during the war supplied the Red Army have now turned over to civilian production.

Tanks into Railway Wagons. "Our plant has now been assigned the task of starting mass production of heavy-load railway wagons at the earliest possible date," says a *Pravda* article by Yuri Maxarev, Director of the Stalin Tank Plant in the Urals. "Already next year we must reach and surpass the pre-war railway wagon production volume in the

Urals." This year the Stalin Tank Plant will produce 9,000 modern heavy wagons. The 1947 programme provides for a production of more than 20,000 double-bogie railway wagons. Before the war no individual Soviet plant turned out as many as that. Preparations for the building was started in November, 1945.

RESTORATION

Railways. In the Soviet republics of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania nearly 3,000 miles of railway track have been relaid. All stations have been equipped with automatic signalling devices, more than half the trunk lines make use of the automatic block system. Wooden railway bridges are being replaced by steel and reinforced concrete structures. The construction of several new trunk lines and an uninterrupted railway ferry service from the mainland to Oesel Island is also planned. By 1950 the railways of these Baltic republics will be able to carry 50 per cent more passengers and freight than before the war.

Dnieper Power Station. The first turbo-generator of the Dnieper hydro-electric power station will be completed by the end of this year. In the next two years all nine turbines will be put into operation. The turbines and generators will be more powerful, and the total power will be increased by 90,000 kw.

Donets Basin. Coal output in the Donets Basin will this year reach 60 per cent of the pre-war level. Of 300 principal coal mines in the Basin, 100 have so far been completely restored and 54 partly.

AGRICULTURE

Collective farms today possess 90,000,000 acres of land. In 1940 there were more than 500,000 tractors and 188,000 combine-harvesters. In that same year 82 per cent of the spring tillage was performed by tractors. Pre-revolutionary Russia produced about 3,000,000,000 bushels of grain while Soviet agriculture before the war yielded over 5,000,000,000 bushels. In wheat, barley, oats and sugar beet crops the U.S.S.R. holds first place in the world. In 1939 there were over 300,000 agronomists and other specialists in Soviet villages. At this time Soviet agriculture already employed 1,500,000 tractor drivers and mechanics. In 1944 the crop area exceeded that of 1943 by 20,000,000 acres.

Allotments. In 1945 18,500,000 people had their own vegetable gardens making an area of some 4,000,000 acres, three times as great as in 1942.

In the Pamirs. The Pamirs has a research station 7,750 feet above sea level. The station has collected 300 varieties of trees and shrubs, 80 or fruits and berries, and tested 2,000 species of vegetables, flowers, industrial and medicinal plants. It has helped to develop vineyards now flourishing 8,600

up and tobacco at 10,000 feet. The once bare mountain sides now grow the American false acacia, Chinese soap tree, apricots, pears and apples. The few Eucalyptus trees brought to the Georgian coast have increased to over seven million.

TRANSPORT

New Style Street-Cars. A new kind of electric street-car, running without rails or overhead wires and carrying no accumulators, is to serve Kiev, the Ukrainian capital. It is now being tested in the high-frequency laboratory of the Kiev Polytechnical Institute. The car carries an electric motor which is set in motion by an inductive high-frequency current from a network under the road surface. The underground current does not affect the human body.

Railways. In the Sverdlovsk Region the Nadezhdinsk-Bogoslovsk line has already been reconstructed. The new Alapayevsk-Sosva railway line which will serve as a new link between the Northern Urals and the South is to be opened shortly. The electrification of the most intensively working Northern Urals line, Goroblagodatskaya-Bogoslovsk, has been started. A second track has been laid down on the railway lines connecting the Urals with Karaganda—the centre of the Kuznetsk Basin.

Luxury Trains. A new luxury train has been taking passengers to the holiday resort of Sochi. Carriages are provided with small libraries, chess boards, post-boxes and radio. There is a carriage with shower-baths and a hairdressing saloon, a footwear and clothing repair shop, and a cloak room for hand-luggage. Parcels containing soap, tooth-brushes and tooth-paste and writing materials can be bought. In Moscow-Tbilisi trains the compartments are provided with telephones. At large stations the train's telephone system is connected to local exchanges and passengers can talk with their friends in other towns without leaving the train. In the near future, 60 of these luxury trains will be in commission.

Engineering Invention. Designed by Soviet engineers, new springs for railway rolling stock, in the production of which a small percentage of the rare metal beryllium has been added to the ordinary steel used, have in testing withstood from 10 to 14 million bumps without showing any signs of wear. Ordinary springs completely failed after 700,000 to 750,000 bumps.

River Transport. Byelorussia's rivers have a total length of 12,500 miles. In 1950 the small rivers and lakes will carry 600,000 tons freight.

SCIENCE

Scientific Expeditions. Fifty major scientific expeditions are being fitted out by the

(Continued on page 39)

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